

A GAZETTEER
OF THE
JAISALMER STATE
AND
SOME STATISTICAL TABLES.

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P R E F A C E .

THIS book is merely a collection of such portions of Vols. III.-A. and III.-B. of the series of Rajputana Gazetteers as relate either to the Western Rajputana States Residency or to the Jaisalmer State. It begins with the text proper—pages 1-39 ; and then follow eleven tables of Statistics—the pages being numbered 1-19. The printing of the above was entrusted to the *Pioneer* Press, Allahabad, which was also responsible for the printing and binding of Vols. III.-A. and III.-B. above mentioned ; the rest of the printing and the binding of this volume have been done by the Scottish Mission Industries Company, Ajmer. The book is intended solely for the use of the Jaisalmer Darbar and its officials, or of Political and Medical Officers connected with Jaisalmer ; hence only forty-seven copies have been printed. Blank leaves have been introduced throughout in order to admit of the insertion of additions, corrections, criticisms and the like, the object being that the book may as far as possible be kept up to date, and that in this way the labours of the officer who may be called on some years hence to revise it may be materially lightened.

In the preface to Vol. III.-A I have recorded my acknowledgments of the help received from the Jaisalmer Darbar and its officials in general and from Rao Sahib Lakhshmi Das Sapat (the late Diwan) and Pandit Gauri Shankar (Curator of the Rajputana Museum at Ajmer) in particular. I am most grateful for their assistance.

K. D. E.

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THE WESTERN RAJPUTANA STATES RESIDENCY.

The Residency is situated in the west and south-west of Rājputāna, and comprises the three States of Jaisalmer, Jodhpur and Sirohi, lying between 24° 20' and 28° 23' north latitude and 69° 30' and 75° 22' east longitude. It is bounded on the north by Bikaner and Bahāwalpur; on the west by Sind; on the south by Gujarāt; and on the east by Udaipur, the British District of Ajmer-Merwāra, and Kishangarh and Jaipur.

The Residency has a total area of 52,989 square miles, and in 1901 contained thirty-two towns and 4,909 villages, with 2,163,479 inhabitants. In regard to area, it is more than twice the size of any political charge in Rājputāna, while in the matter of population it takes second place. The density per square mile at the last census was only 41, a compared with 76 for the Province as a whole; indeed, Jaisalmer in the extreme west, with its $4\frac{1}{2}$ persons per square mile, is for its size (over 16,000 square miles) the most sparsely populated tract in India. Of the total population in 1901, Hindus formed nearly eighty-two, Musalmāns eight, and Jains seven per cent. The only towns that contained more than 10,000 inhabitants were Jodhpur (79,109 including the suburbs); Phalodi (13,924); Nāgaur (13,377); Pāli (12,673); Sojat (11,107); Sāmbhar (10,873); and Kuchāwan (10,749). All of these belong to Jodhpur except Sāmbhar, which is held jointly by the Jodhpur and Jaipur Darbārs.

A Political Agent was first appointed to Jodhpur in 1839, and Jaisalmer was added to his charge thirty years later. Sirohi was, for the most part, under the political control of an Assistant to the Governor-General's Agent up to 1870, when it was placed under the Commandant of the Erinpura Irregular Force. The officer last mentioned became Political Agent of the three States in 1879, and his charge was styled the Western Rājputāna States Agency in the following year, but this arrangement did not last long, for in 1881 the command of the Erinpura Force was separated from the duties of the Political Agent, and in 1882 the headquarters of the latter were moved from Erinpura to Jodhpur (where they still are), and the designation of Western Rājputāna States Residency came into use. Some further particulars will be found in Tables Nos. I and II in Volume III-B.

PART I.

Jaisalmer State.

Jaisalmer State.

CHAPTER I.

PHYSICAL ASPECTS.

Jaisalmer, the most western of the States of Rājputāna, lies between $26^{\circ} 4'$ and $28^{\circ} 23'$ north latitude and $69^{\circ} 30'$ and $72^{\circ} 42'$ east longitude and has an area of 16,062 square miles ; it is thus in regard to size third among the twenty States and chiefships of the Province. Its greatest breadth from east to west is about 170 miles, and greatest length from north to south 136 miles ; in shape it is an irregular oval, the longest axis being 210 miles, lying north-east and south-west. It is bounded on the north by Bahāwalpur ; on the west by the Shikārpur District of Sind, and by Khairpur ; on the south and east by Jodhpur ; and on the north-east by Bikaner.

Position,
area,
boundaries,
etc.

The country is almost entirely a sandy waste forming part of what is known as the great Indian desert. In the neighbourhood of Jaisalmer town, and within a circuit of about forty miles, the soil is very stony, and numerous low rocky ridges and hard undulating plains, covered in places to the south with smooth pebbles displaying the action of water, occur, but, with this exception, the general aspect is that of an interminable sea of sand-hills of all shapes and sizes, varying from twenty to two hundred feet in height and being sometimes two or three miles in length. The sand-hills in the west are covered with bushes of *phog* (*Calligonum polygonoides*), *lānā* (*Haloxylon salicornicum*) and *khejrā* (*Prosopis spicigera*), and those in the east with tufts of long grass. Shifting sands, locally termed *dhrians*, are common, especially in the west near Shāhgarh, where they are often many miles in extent and where their surface is continually changing, the sand being in one place scooped out into funnel-shaped hollows, and in another thrown up into beautifully rounded hills ; these *dhrians* are very difficult to cross as the path shifts almost daily, and the people say that they are gradually but very slowly travelling northwards. Of the State as a whole it may be said that no country could well bear a more desolate appearance. The villages are few and far between, sparsely populated, and consist, as a rule, of some circular huts of brushwood collected round a well of brackish water. In many cases well water, which is drinkable in the cold season, becomes actually poisonous in the hot weather. The average depth of the wells is said to be about 250 feet, but one measured some years ago by an officer of the Great Trigonometrical Survey of India was found to be 490 feet deep. The acme of desolation is reached in the west where the *dhrians* impoverish the already sterile country ; there are no crops here, and the people live almost

Configura-
tion.

entirely on milk in various forms, a little *bājra* and *moth* being, however, imported from Sind in exchange for sheep.

Rivers.

The State possesses no perennial rivers, but there is one small stream called the Kākni, which rises near the village of Kotrī, seventeen miles south of the capital, and, after flowing first in a northerly and next in a westerly direction, forms a lake called the Bhūj *jhūl*; in years of heavy rainfall it deviates from its usual course and, instead of turning to the west, continues north for about twelve miles till checked by the recently constructed Dāiya dam. Another rivulet, the Lāthi-kī-nadi, formerly entered Jaisalmer from Jodhpur near Lāthi on the east and flowed west by north-west as far as Mohangarh, but its bed has contained no water since 1825 when the people tell of a very heavy rainfall.

Geology.

The surface of the country is to a large extent covered by dunes of blown sand of the transverse type, *i.e.* with their longer axes at right angles to the direction of the prevailing wind. Rocks of jurassic age crop out from beneath the sand and have been divided* into the following groups:—

- | | |
|---------------------------------|--|
| 5. Abur (or Hābur) beds | { Sandstones, shales and limestones, with a conspicuous fossiliferous band. |
| 4. Parihār sandstones ... | { Soft, white, felspathic sandstones, largely composed of fragments of transparent quartz. |
| 3. Bidesar (or Bhadāsar) group. | { Purplish and reddish sandstones, with thin layers of black vitreous sandstone. |
| 2. Jaisalmer limestones .. | { Thick bands of buff and light brown limestone, interstratified with grey, brown and black sandstone and some conglomerate. |
| 1. Bālmer (Bārmer) sandstones. | { White, grey and brown sandstones and conglomerates, with fossil leaves and wood. |

Boulder beds of glacial origin occur at Bāp, resting on Vindhyan limestones, and are considered to represent the Tālcher beds at the base of the Gondwāna system. To the north-west of the capital is a large outcrop of nummulitic rocks, probably of the same age as the Kirthar group of Sind and thus indicating an easterly extension of the sea; the rocks represented are a white nummuliferous limestone (with which is associated ferruginous laterite) and shaly beds, mostly grey and impregnated with salt, though a fine-grained, pale buff-coloured fullers' earth is also found and is quarried for export under the name of *Multāni mitti*.

Botany.

The most prominent constituent of the vegetation is the scrub jungle which shows forth, rather than conceals, the arid nakedness of the land. The scrub consists largely of species of *Capparis*, *Zizyphus*,

* R. D. Oldham, *Manual of the Geology of India*, 2nd edition, page 226, Calcutta, 1893.

Tamarix, *Grewia*, with plants characteristic of the desert, such as *rohīra* (*Tecoma undulata*), *bāvli* (*Acacia Jacquemontii*), *hingota* (*Balanites Roxburghii*), and two cactaceous looking spurges called *thor* (*Euphorbia Royleana* and *E. neriifolia*). Of indigenous trees the following are most common, though the term "tree" is rather a courteous acknowledgment of their descent than an indication of their size:—*khejrā* (*Prosopis spicigera*); *jhāl* and *chhotī jhāl* (*Salvadora persica* and *S. oleoides*); *arunja*, *khair* and *kuntia* (*Acacia leucophloea*, *A. catechu* and *A. rupestris*); two species of *ber* (*Zizyphus jujuba* and *Z. nummularia*); and *nīm* (*Azadirachta indica*). The shrubs include the *āk* or *ākṛā* (*Calotropis procera*), *hajeru* (*Mimosa rubricaulis*), *lānā* (*Haloxylon salicornicum*) and *phog* (*Calligonum polygonoides*); while the more important grasses are *bharūt* (*Cenchrus catharticus*), *phalis* (*Panicum crusgalli*), *murant* (*Chloris Roxburghiana*) and *sīwan* (*Panicum frumentaceum*).

The fauna is neither varied nor important. Early writers have mentioned the existence of a few lions and tigers in the south and south-west, but these animals have not been seen for many years; the wild aśś (*Equus onager*) also seems to have disappeared. Wild pig, *nīlgai* (*Boselaphus tragocamelus*) and even panthers are occasionally met with, and wolves and hyænas are not altogether rare. Black buck are found in small numbers in the east, and the following are more or less common throughout the State:—Indian gazelle (*chikāra*), hare, grey partridge, grey quail, bustard of both the great Indian and lesser varieties, common and painted sand-grouse, and three species of the imperial sand-grouse, namely, the spotted, the pin-tailed and the black-breasted. Water-fowl are very rare visitors as there is little or no suitable ground for them, even in the best of years. Snakes are numerous, and the Administration Report for 1904-05 gives the following description of a poisonous reptile called *pīvana*:—"It is just like a snake in appearance. It does not bite. It is said that when it finds a man sleeping, it creeps over his breast and continues breathing into his nose and mouth. Its breath is poisonous, and it is very seldom that a man poisoned by its breath recovers." To this the Resident adds that when in Bikaner he was told that the animal sought the warmth of the human breath to alleviate pain and that, its own breath being venomous, the victim of its attentions is poisoned and dies. A specimen of this peculiar snake was sent to Bombay for identification and turned out to be the Sind *karāit* (*Bungarus Sindanus*).*

The climate of Jaisalmer is dry and healthy, but the hot weather is very prolonged and the heat is intense and trying. The

Climate and
temperature.

* Since writing the above, I have come across a book called *Some account of the general and medical topography of Ajmer*; it is undated, but appears to have been published about 1840, the author being Assistant Surgeon R. H. Irvine. He mentions the existence of the *pīvana* in Jaisalmer and, after describing it as "very poisonous, of a yellow colour, thick and short," adds:—"The superstitious natives say that it does not bite, but comes (like incubus) during the night and rests on the breast of the sleeper, and, on leaving this situation, strikes with its tail, and the person dies in the morning!"

temperature generally ranges between 64° and 115° , and is highest in May and June, when scorching winds prevail with much violence; the coldest period is in January, when the thermometer frequently reads below freezing point during the night, and the air is crisp and bracing.

Rainfall.

The State is situated near the limits of that part of Asia which belongs to the rainless regions of the world, and the rainfall, always scanty and precarious, generally varies in different parts. Statistics are available for the capital since 1883, and for five places in the districts since 1895. The average annual fall at Jaisalmer town during the past twenty-three years has been 6.18 inches, and the averages for the four rainy months are July 2.04, August 1.82, June 0.73 and September 0.65 inches respectively. The year of heaviest rainfall was 1893, when 15.24 inches were received, namely, 1.28 in May, 2.07 in June, 7.53 in July, 2.21 in August and 1.27 inches in September; the worst year, on the other hand, was 1899, when the total fall was but 26 cents, and the whole of this was received in April. For the districts we have records for the last eleven years only, and the annual averages work out thus:—Bāp in the north-east 5.49 inches; Devīkot in the south-east 4.91 inches; Khābha and Dewa, both more or less in the centre, 4.72 and 3.54 inches respectively; and Rāmgarh towards the north-west 3.25 inches. These figures are probably from one to two inches below the *real* average, for we find that, whereas the annual average rainfall at the capital during the last twenty-three years was 6.18, it was only 4.16 during the last eleven years, *i.e.* less than at Bāp, Devīkot and Khābha. Some further details will be found in Tables Nos. III and IV (in Vol. III-B), which show that in 1897 Dewa, Jaisalmer and Bāp all received eleven inches or more, while in 1899 not a single cent was registered at either Khābha or Rāmgarh.

CHAPTER II.

HISTORY.

The chiefs of Jaisalmer belong to the Chandrabansi or Lunar race of which Budha was the founder at a very remote period of the world's history, and which subsequently expanded into fifty-six branches and became famous throughout India. The chronicles mention Prayāg (the modern Allahābād) as the cradle of this race, and Muttra as the capital for many years. The clan to which the Jaisalmer family belongs is called Jādon after Yādu or Jādu, who is said to have been the fourth in descent from Budha, and one of whose successors was the deified hero Sri Krishna, who ruled at Dwārka. On the death of the latter, the tribe became dispersed, and many of its members, including two of Krishna's sons, proceeded northwards beyond the Indus and settled there. One of their descendants, Gaj or Gajpat, built a fort called Gajni or Gajnipur (identified by Tod as the Ghazni of Afghānistān but believed by Cunningham to be in the vicinity of Rāwalpindi, where tradition places an ancient city named Gājipur), but, being defeated and killed in a battle with the king of Khorāsān, his followers were driven southward into the Punjab where, several generations later, Sālivāhan established a new capital which he called Sālbāhanpur after himself and which is generally identified with Siālkot. This chief is said to have conquered the whole of the Punjab, to have regained Gajni, and to have had fifteen sons, "all of whom, by the strength of their own arms, established themselves in independence"; but, in the time of his successor, Baland, "the Turks" (*i.e.* the races from Central Asia) "began rapidly to increase and subjugate all beneath their sway, and the lands around Gajni were again in their power." Baland's son, Bhāti, was a renowned warrior who conquered many of the neighbouring chiefs, and it is from him that the tribe takes its name of Bhāti or Jādon Bhāti. He was succeeded by his son, Mangal Rao, whose "fortune was not equal to that of his fathers" and who, on being attacked by the king of Ghazni, abandoned his kingdom, fled across the Sutlej and found refuge in the Indian desert which has since been the home of his descendants.

The above is a brief and imperfect account of the early history of this clan, taken from the annals of Jaisalmer which, as Tod has remarked, must have been "transcribed by some ignoramus who has jumbled together events of ancient and modern date." Thus we are told that Sālivāhan founded the city of Sālbāhanpur in Vikrama *Samvat* 72 (or about 16 A.D.), that the third in succession to him, Mangal Rao, was driven southward into the desert, and that Mangal Rao's grandson, Kehar, laid the foundation of a castle called Tanot (still in Jaisalmer territory), which was completed in 731 A.D.; or, in other words, that Sālivāhan and his five immediate successors ruled

Early
history.

for more than seven hundred years! Again, it is stated that in Sālivāhan's time the cocoanut (an offer of marriage) came from Rājā Jai Pāl Tonwar of Delhi and was accepted, whereas the Tonwar dynasty ruled at Delhi for just a century from about 1050 A.D. The Sālivāhan above referred to has by some been identified with the hero of the same name, who defeated the Indo-Scythians in a great battle near Kahrōr within sixty miles of Multān and who, to commemorate the event, assumed the title of *Sākāri* or foe of the Sākas (Scythians) and established the Sāka era from the date of the battle (78 A.D.),* but, though this man may be the founder of Sālbāhanpur, he cannot be the Sālivāhan described in the annals as the great-grandfather of Mangal Rao, who must have lived in the seventh or eighth century.

Migration to
the desert.

The country to which Mangal Rao fled about twelve hundred years ago was inhabited by various Rājput clans such as the Būtas and Chunnas (now extinct), the Barāhas (now Musalmāns), the Langāhas (a branch of the Solankis), and the Sodhas and Lodras (both branches of the Paramāras), and with the two last and the Barāhas he speedily came into collision and subjugated some of their territory. A list of his successors will be found in Table No. V in Vol. III-B. The first of these, Majam Rao, was recognised by all the neighbouring princes and married the daughter of the Sodha chief of Umarkot (now in Sind). His son, Kehar I, was renowned for his daring exploits, and is said to have married the daughter of Alhan Singh, the Deorāī chief of Jālor (a fort now in Jodhpur territory). He laid the foundation of a castle, which he named Tanot after his son and which, according to the annals, was completed in 731, and became the first capital of the Bhātis in this part of the country; the place lies about seventy-five miles north-west of the town of Jaisalmer. In the time of his successors, Tano or Tanuji and Bijai Rāj I, fights with the Barāhas continued and the latter, finding that they could not succeed by open warfare, had recourse to treachery. Under pretence of putting an end to the feud, they invited Bijai Rāj's son and heir, Deorāj, to marry the daughter of their chief and, when the Bhātis had assembled, they fell on them and slew eight hundred, including Bijai Rāj himself; they subsequently invested and captured Tanot, killed most of the inhabitants, and the very name of Bhāti was for a time nearly extinct.

Tanot, the
first capital.

Deorāi the
first Rāwal.

Deorāj, however, escaped the massacre through the help of a Brāhman and, after remaining in hiding for some time, proceeded to the country of his mother, who was of the Būta clan, where he was given land and erected a place of strength which he called Deogarh or Deorāwar after himself; it is marked Derāwar on most maps and is now in Bahāwalpur about sixty miles from the northern frontier of

* A. Cunningham, *Archæological Survey of Northern India*, Vol II, page 21.

† Another anachronism. Deora is the sept of the Chauhāns of which the Sirohi chief is the head, but it did not come into existence till the thirteenth century. At this time (eighth or ninth century), Jālor was held by the Paramāras, and they continued in possession till ousted by the Chauhāns at the end of the twelfth century.

the Jaisalmer State. Subsequently he proceeded to wreak vengeance on the Barāhas and subdue the Langāhas, and one of his last exploits was to capture from the Lodra Rājputs the town of Lodorva, an immense city with twelve gates, the ruins of which are still to be seen about ten miles north-west of Jaisalmer town. He was one of the most distinguished chiefs of the clan, is counted as the real founder of the Jaisalmer family, was the first to assume the title of Rāwal and, after ruling for many years, was killed while out hunting by an ambush of Chunna Rājputs. His dates cannot be given with any certainty, but if the annals be correct in saying that his son and successor, Mūnda, married the daughter of Vallabharājā Solanki of Anhilwāra Pātan (in the Baroda State), we may say that he died towards the end of the tenth century.

Mūnda suitably avenged his father's death, but he ruled for only a short time, and there is little to be said regarding his successors, Wachuji or Bachera, Dusaj, and Bijai Rāj II, except that the last named was the son of a Mewār princess and was placed on the *gaddi* in preference to two elder brothers (one of whom was Jaisal). Further, Bijai Rāj married the daughter of Siddharājā Jai Singh Solanki, and this gives us another date, for the latter ruled at Pātan from 1093 to 1143. The issue of this alliance was Bhojdeo who had only just succeeded as Rāwal when his uncle Jaisal conspired against him, but, being always surrounded by a guard of five hundred Solankis, his person was unassailable. Jaisal therefore paid a visit to the king of Ghor and, by swearing allegiance to him, obtained the loan of a force to dispossess his nephew. Lodorva was encompassed and sacked, Bhojdeo was slain in its defence, the Musalmān army marched away with the spoils, and Jaisal became Rāwal. Lodorva was, however, ill-adapted for defence, so Jaisal sought for a stronger place and found it ten miles to the south-east, where he laid the foundation of the fort and city of Jaisalmer in 1156. He survived the change of capital only twelve years and was succeeded by his younger son Sālīvāhan I, who is said to have married the sister or daughter of Mān* Singh Deora of Sirohi. While he was absent on this business, his son by another wife, Bijal, usurped the *gaddi* and, on his father's return, declined to vacate it, whereupon Sālīvāhan retired to Deorāwar and was subsequently slain there repelling an irruption of the Baluchis. Bijal, however, did not rule long; having in a fit of passion struck his foster-brother, at whose instigation he had originally usurped power, "the blow was returned, upon which, stung with shame and resentment, he stabbed himself with his dagger." The next chief was Kailan, the elder brother of Sālīvāhan, who had been expelled from the State in the time of his father Jaisal but was now recalled and installed at the age of fifty years. He is said to have defeated Khizr Khān Baloch and to have ruled for nineteen years. His successors, Chāchikdeo I and Karan Singh I, were engaged in

Rāwal Jaisal.

*If this is correct, the date of the foundation of Jaisalmer must be wrong, for Mān Singh's father is known to have been alive in 1249. Moreover, the Deora sept did not then exist as it takes its name from Mān Singh's son, Deorāj.

constant broils with their neighbours, amongst whom were the recently arrived Rāthors who had settled in the land of Kher at Jasol and Bālotra, while Karan Singh's son, Lākhan, was apparently a simpleton who, when the jackals howled at night, enquired the cause and, on being told that it was from the cold, ordered quilted coats to be prepared for them. As the howling still continued, although he was assured his commands had been obeyed, he caused houses to be built for them in his game preserves (*ramnas*). He was allowed to rule for four years when he was replaced by his son, Pūnpāl, who, however, possessed such an ungovernable temper that the nobles deposed him and placed his great-uncle, Jet Singh I, on the *gaddi*.

Jet Singh.

Jet Singh was the elder grandson and heir-apparent of Chāchik-deo and, on being superseded by his younger brother, Karan Singh I, had abandoned his country and taken service with the Muhammadans of Gujarāt. He was now recalled and installed as Rāwal, and is said to have ruled from 1276 to 1294. According to the local bards, Alā-ud-dīn was king of Delhi at this time and despatched an immense army to punish the Bhātis for having carried off certain treasure which was being conveyed from Tatta and Multān to his capital. The fort of Jaisalmer is said to have been besieged for nine years and to have been captured in 1295, when Mulrāj I, Jet Singh's successor, was killed in the final *sortie*. Tod, quoting from the annals, gives a graphic account of the defence and the awful closing scenes but remarks in a foot-note:—"This can mean nothing more than that desultory attacks were carried on against the Bhāti capital. It is certain that Alā never carried his arms in person against Jaisalmer." To this it may be added that none of the Musalmān historians mention this very prolonged siege and obstinate defence, and that, if Alā-ud-dīn was king, the dates are faulty. In 1286, when the siege is said to have begun, Balban was ruling, and the Slave dynasty ended in 1290; while 1295, when the fort is supposed to have been taken, was the year in which Alā-ud-dīn Khiljī proclaimed himself Sultān.

The Musalmāns are said to have kept possession of Jaisalmer for two years and to have then abandoned the place, which remained deserted for a short time. Some Rāthors from Mewo in the Mallāni district of Jodhpur attempted to settle there but were driven away by Dūda, a son of Jet Singh, who for this exploit was elected Rāwal and proceeded to repair the town and fort. One of his sons, Tilak Singh, was renowned for his predatory exploits; he extended his raids to Abu and Jālor and even carried off the stud of Alā-ud-dīn from the Anāsāgar at Ajmer. This last insult provoked another attack on Jaisalmer, attended with the same disastrous results; again the females were destroyed, and Dūda, with Tilak Singh and seventeen hundred of the clan, fell in battle in 1306. The next chief was Gharsi, a nephew of Mulrāj I, who had been captured at the first siege and taken to Delhi where, by his courage and gallant bearing, he gained the king's favour and obtained a grant of his hereditary dominions, with permission to re-establish Jaisalmer; he is said to have been



assassinated about 1335 by some relations of his predecessor, Dūda, and was succeeded by his brother, Kehar II, who ruled in peace for about sixty years. Of the thirteen chiefs who followed him the annals tell us very little; their names were (1) Lachhman, (2) Bersi, (3) Chāchikdeo II, (4) Devī Dās, (5) Jet Singh II, (6) Karan Singh II, (7) Lūnkaran, (8) Māldeo (or Baldeo), (9) Har Rāj, (10) Bhīm, (11) Kalyān Dās, (12) Manohar Dās, and (13) Rāmchandra. An inscription, dated 1448 in a temple at Jaisalmer, tells us that the third of the above, Chāchikdeo, was ruling in that year. The seventh (Lūnkaran) opposed Humāyūn in 1541 when on his way to Ajmer *via* Jaisalmer and Nāgaur or, as the *Tabakāt-i-Akbarī* puts it, "he shamefully took an unmanly course. He sent a force to attack the small party of the emperor on the march, but it was defeated and driven back with loss. Humāyūn had a great many wounded." In the sixteenth century we hear of the Turkoman governor of Umarkot, under the Arghūn dynasty, marrying the daughter of a chief of Jaisalmer, and the son of this marriage was Khān-i-Zamān, a distinguished general of his time in Sind, which was then on friendly political terms with Jaisalmer. The *Beg-lār-nāmah* mentions the deputation of Khān-i-Zamān on a mission to Rāwal Har Rāj with a robe of honour from Mirza Jān Beg of Sind. The name of Rāwal Bhīm appears in the *Ain-i-Akbarī* in the list of *mansabdārs* (commanders) of 500, and Jahāngīr* described him as "a man of rank and influence. When he died, he left a son two months old who did not live long. Bhīm's daughter had been married to me when I was prince, and I had given her the title of *Malikah-i-Jahān*. This alliance was made because her family had always been faithful to our house." Rāwal Bhīm married the niece of Rājā Sūr Singh of Bikaner and, shortly after his death, the Bhātis killed his infant son, on which Sūr Singh swore that no Bikaner chief's daughter should again go to Jaisalmer, an oath which has been held binding by his successors. Bhīm was followed on the *gaddi* by his brother Kalyān Dās, about the year 1624. According to the *Ain-i-Akbarī*, he had been appointed governor of Orissa in 1610, while the *Tuzak* states that he was made a commander of 2,000 (1,000 horse) about six years later. Jahāngīr writes that he "called him to court in 1626, invested him with the *tika*, and made him Rāwal." Of the next two chiefs, Manohar Dās and Rāmchandra, nothing is known except that the former was the son of Kalyān Dās.

We now come to Sabal Singh, a great-grandson of Rāwal Māldeo and a contemporary of Shāh Jahān. Tod says that he was "the first prince of Jaisalmer who held his dominions as a fief of the empire," but this does not accord with what Jahāngīr has written. He appears to have been related to the Kishangarh family, his aunt having been married to Rājā Kishan Singh, and he is said to have served with distinction at Peshāwar, where on one occasion he saved the royal treasure from being captured by the Afghān mountaineers. As a reward for this exploit and because he was a favourite of the

Sabal Singh,
1651—61.

* See *Tuzak-i-Jahāngīrī*, page 159.

Rājput chiefs who were serving there with their contingents, Shāh Jabān ordered that he should be installed as ruler of Jaisalmer although he was not the legitimate heir to the *gaddi*. The State had now arrived at the height of its power; the territory extended north to the Sutlej, comprised the whole of Bahāwalpur westward to the Indus, and to the east and south included many districts subsequently annexed by the Rāthors and incorporated in Jodhpur and Bikaner. But from this time till the accession of Muḡrāj II in 1762 the fortunes of Jaisalmer rapidly declined, and her boundaries were wofully curtailed.

Amar Singh,
1661—1702.

Sabal Singh ruled for ten years (1651—61) and was succeeded by his son, Amar Singh, a wise and valiant chief who cleared his country of robbers and defeated an army sent against him by Anūp Singh of Bikaner. He died in 1702 and was followed by Jaswant Singh, in whose time the districts of Pūgal, Bārmer and Phalodi were seized by the Rāthors, while the territory bordering the Sutlej was taken by Dāud Khān, an Afghān chieftain from Shikārpur. The three next rulers appear to have been Budh Singh, Tej Singh and Akhai Singh, though there is much confusion owing to constant fighting between rival claimants, first one and then another being temporarily successful. Akhai Singh ruled from 1722 to 1762 and established a mint at his capital in 1756 (the currency being called after him Akhai Shāhi); but he lost another portion of his dominions, namely Deorāwar and the tract in the vicinity called Khādal (the earliest of the Bhāti conquests in the desert), to Bahāwal Khān, son of Dāud Khān and founder of the Bahāwalpur State.

Akhai Singh,
1722—62.

Muḡrāj II,
1762—1820.

Muḡrāj II succeeded Akhai Singh and ruled for fifty-eight years. The unhappy choice of a minister completed the demoralisation of the Bhāti principality. This man, by name Sarūp Singh, was a Mahājan by caste and a Jain by religion and, having deeply offended some of the nobles and the heir-apparent (Rai Singh), was cut down by the latter in the Rāwal's presence. Then ensued a state of anarchy, the nobles wishing to depose Muḡrāj and substitute Rai Singh, the latter steadily refusing to listen to the proposal; eventually, however, Rai Singh and his partisans went into exile, while the nobles, whose estates had been sequestered, took up their abode at Sheo and Bārmer (in Jodhpur) to the south whence, for twelve years, they devastated the country, plundering even to the gates of Jaisalmer. Rai Singh, after remaining in exile for two or three years, returned to his native city but was refused admittance and deported to the fort of Dewa (about twenty miles to the north).

Rāwal Muḡrāj waited until Sālim Singh, the son of his slaughtered favourite, Sarūp Singh, was old enough to manage affairs and then made him minister. Sālim Singh appears to have been the very incarnation of evil, "uniting the subtlety of the serpent to the ferocity of the tiger." He is described as having been in person effeminate, in speech bland; pliant and courteous in demeanour; promising without hesitation, and with all the semblance of sincerity, what he never had the remotest intention to fulfil. With commercial

men and with the industrious agriculturists or pastoral communities he had so long forfeited all claim to credit that his oath was not valued at a single grain of the sand of their own desert dominion, and finally he drove out the Pāliwāl Brāhmans, who had come from Pāli in Jodhpur in the thirteenth century, were famous as enterprising cultivators and landholders, had constructed most of the *kharīns* or irrigation tanks now to be found in the country, and whose solid well-built villages still stand, deserted, to mark an era of prosperity to which it will be difficult for the State ever again to attain.

It happened that the nobles exiled with Rai Singh waylaid and captured this man on his return from a mission to Jodhpur in or about 1793, but, their hearts softening to his entreaties, they allowed him to depart uninjured. As a return for this kindness he had Zorāwar Singh, Thākur of Jhinjiniāli, who had been mainly instrumental in saving him, poisoned; he caused the castle in which Rai Singh and his wife were living to be set on fire at a time when it was impossible for them to escape, and they were burnt to death; and their children he confined at Rāngarh in a remote corner of the desert, where he had them poisoned. He then declared Gaj Singh, the youngest but one of all Mulrāj's grandsons, to be heir-apparent and proceeded to put to death all those whose talent he had any reason to fear. The town of Jaisalmer was depopulated by his cruelty, and the trade of the country suffered from his harsh and unscrupulous measures.

The State which, owing to its isolated situation, escaped the ravages of the Marāthās, was one of the last to be taken under British protection. The treaty is dated 12th December 1818, and by it the principality was guaranteed to the posterity of Mulrāj; the chief was to be protected from serious invasions and dangers to his State, provided the cause of the quarrel was not attributable to him, and he was to act in subordinate co-operation with the British Government. No tribute was demanded. Mulrāj died in 1820 and was succeeded by his grandson, Gaj Singh, who "was fitted, from his years, his past seclusion, and the examples which had occurred before his eyes, to be the submissive pageant Sālim Singh (the minister) required." For a short time, the latter appeared to fall in with the march of universal reformation, and this was attributed to his anxiety to have an article added to the treaty, guaranteeing the office of prime minister in his family; but seeing no hope of fixing an hereditary race of vampires on the land, his outrages became past all endurance and compelled the British Agent to report to his Government on the 17th December 1821 that he considered the alliance disgraceful to our reputation, by countenancing the idea that such acts could be tolerated under its protection. "Representations to the minister were a nullity; he protested against their fidelity, asserted in specious language his love of justice and mercy, and recommenced his system of confiscations, contributions and punishments with redoubled severity." Up to 1823 Sālim Singh constantly urged, in the name of his master, claims to territories in the possession of other chiefs, but these were rejected as the investigation of them was

Treaty with
Government,
1818.

Gaj Singh,
1820—46.

inconsistent with the engagements subsisting between the British Government and other States. In 1824 Sālim Singh was wounded by a Rājput, and as there was some fear that the wound might heal, his wife gave him poison ! On his death the leading men of the State appeared disposed to support the cause of his eldest son who, after a ministry of a few months, had been imprisoned by Mahārāwal Gaj Singh ; but on the British Government declaring that it did not intend to interfere with the just authority of the chief in the appointment or punishment of his minister, all parties returned to their allegiance and Gaj Singh, now in his twenty-third year, assumed the personal administration and by measures of a just and conciliatory nature gained great popularity with his people.

In 1829 Mahārājā Ratan Singh of Bikaner, in violation of his treaty engagements, invaded Jaisalmer to revenge some injuries committed by subjects of the latter. Gaj Singh prepared an army to repel the invasion, and both parties had applied to neighbouring States for assistance when the British Government interfered, and, through the arbitration of the Mahārānā of Udaipur, the dispute was settled. Squabbles between Bikaner and Jaisalmer, however, continued and had reached such a point in 1835 that a British officer was deputed to effect a reconciliation ; his mission was happily attended with success. In 1838-39 the first Afghān war necessitated the despatch of British troops to join the main army by way of the Indus, and Gaj Singh's exertions to supply camels for transport purposes were such as to elicit the special thanks of Government ; while in 1844, after the conquest of Sind, the forts of Shāhgarh, Gharsia and Ghotāru, which had formerly belonged to Jaisalmer, were restored to the State.

Ranjit Singh,
1846-64.

Bairi Sāl,
1864-91.

U Gaj Singh died in 1846 without male issue, and his widow adopted his nephew Ranjīt Singh who, in 1862, received the usual *sanad* guaranteeing to him the right of adoption and who died on the 16th June 1864 without an heir. His widow adopted his younger brother, Bairi Sāl, who was only about fifteen years old and refused to take his seat on the *gaddi*, giving as a reason that he thought he should never be happy as ruler of Jaisalmer. In consideration of his youth, the Government of India allowed the question to remain in abeyance and the installation to be deferred, affairs being in the meantime administered by his father, Thākur Kesri Singh. Within sixteen months Bairi Sāl had outgrown his scruples and was formally installed as Mahārāwal on the 19th October 1865 ; his father continued as minister for four years when he died and was followed by his elder brother, Chhatar Singh, who, though respected by all classes, was not of the same determined character, nor was he so much feared by the plundering Bhātis. In 1870 an extradition treaty was concluded with this State by the Government of India (followed in 1887 by the usual modifying agreement) ; in 1873 the chief married a daughter of the Mahārāwal of Dūngarpur ; and in 1879 he entered into an agreement with Government by which he undertook to limit the local manufacture of salt to 15,000 maunds a

year solely for consumption and use within his territories, and to abolish all dues on British duty-paid salt. •

Mahārāwal Bairi Sāl, who had been ailing for some time and whose illness had rather stood in the way of reform, died on the 10th March 1891 without an heir. His widows adopted Syām Singh, son of Thākur Kushāl Singh of Lāthi, and the choice being confirmed by the Government of India, Syām Singh succeeded and took the family name of Sālīvāhan. He was born on the 12th June 1887, was a student at the Mayo College at Ajmer from 1894 to 1906, and was married to the daughter of the Mahārao of Sirohi in February 1907. During his minority the administration is being conducted by a *Dīvān* and Council under the general superintendence of the Resident, Western Rājputāna States. The principal events of the last fifteen years have been the famines and scarcities which have caused a great falling-off in the population and the revenues and the accumulation of a large debt, and have hampered the efforts of the two capable officials, Jagjīwan and Lakshmī Dās, who have successively held the post of *Dīvān*. The Mahārāwals of Jaisalmer are entitled to a salute of fifteen guns.)

Sālīvāhan II,
1891 to date.

Of objects of antiquarian interest no very reliable account exists. According to Thornton, the town of Birsilpur in the extreme north-east was founded in the second century; the place is now included in the estate of one of the first class nobles and possesses a fort of no great strength. Tanot, the first desert-capital of the Bhātis, lies in the north-west corner and has a fort and temple dating from the eighth century. Lodorva, the ruins of which still exist about ten miles north-west of Jaisalmer town, was the Bhāti capital from the end of the tenth to the middle of the twelfth century; it was taken by Rāwal Deorāj from the Lodra Rājputs, a branch of the Paramāras, in whose time two temples, one to Mātā and the other to Pārasnāth, are said to have been constructed; these buildings, which are in every-day use, would therefore be at least 950 years old. The fort of Devikot in the south-west has a Hindu temple of nearly the same age, while at the village of Sirwa in the vicinity is a building with thirty-two pillars said to have been erected in 820 A.D. and now much out of repair. The objects of interest at the town of Jaisalmer are noticed in Chapter VI below.

Archæology.

CHAPTER III.

THE PEOPLE.

Population
in 1881, 1891
and 1901.

The population at each of the three enumerations which have been made was :—108,143 in 1881; 115,701 in 1891; and 73,370 in 1901. The increase during the first of these decades was nearly seven per cent., or about normal, while the decrease of more than thirty-six per cent. since 1891 was due to a series of indifferent seasons culminating in the famine of 1899-1900, in the course of which many people emigrated and a considerable number died from cholera. The decrease among males and females was about the same, namely, thirty-seven per cent. among the former and nearly thirty-six among the latter. Taking the population by religion, we find that Animists (who, however, have never been numerous) lost sixty per cent., Musalmāns $36\frac{1}{2}$, Hindus $35\frac{1}{2}$ and Jains more than twenty-two per cent.

Density.

Jaisalmer is by far the most sparsely populated State in Rājputāna, the density per square mile having been 6·73 in 1881, 7·20 in 1891, and 4·57 in 1901. In the districts, or *hukūmats* as they are called, the density varies considerably; thus Kishangarh in the north with an area of 400 square miles contained but 403 inhabitants occupying 102 houses in a single village, while Lākha in the centre supported fifteen persons to the square mile.

Towns and
villages.

At the last census the State was made up of one town (the capital) and 471 villages; the number of occupied houses was 17,763 and the average number of persons per house was 4·13. The capital contained 7,137 inhabitants, or about 9·7 per cent. of the total population, who were living in 2,071 houses. The villages have decreased in number as the population has increased, and *vice versā* (see Table No. VI in Vol. III-B), but this was perhaps due to some difference in the definition of the term "village" at each census. There is only one village to every thirty-four square miles of country; the Kishangarh and Tanot *hukūmats*, the areas of which are respectively about 400 and 300 square miles, possess a single village each, while at the other extreme is the Shāhgarh-Ghotāru *hukūmat*, with one hundred villages spread over an area of about 1,600 square miles. Again, taking the State as a whole, each village contains on an average thirty-three houses and 140 inhabitants.

Migration.

Of the 73,370 persons enumerated in 1901, ninety-two per cent. were born in the State, more than five per cent. in Jodhpur, one per cent. in Bikaner, and the majority of the remainder hailed from either Sind or Bahāwalpur. Jaisalmer received from other States in Rājputāna 4,974 persons and gave them in return 1,203 persons, thus gaining 3,771 persons, the majority of whom were females who had married and settled here. In its transactions with Provinces and States of India outside Rājputāna, Jaisalmer, however, lost heavily,



for while immigrants numbered only 806, emigrants numbered at least 36,591 * and were found chiefly in Sind and Bahāwalpur. This was entirely in accordance with expectations, for emigration is an annual event in these parts where there is practically only one crop a year, namely, that sown in the rains and gathered in September or October; moreover, it was known that very† many had left the State during the disastrous famine of 1899-1900 and had not returned by the date (1st March 1901) on which the last census was taken.

The registration of births and deaths was started both at the capital and in the districts in 1893, but the statistics are not altogether reliable, especially in the rural area. During the nine years ending 1901, the average annual number of births registered in the entire State was 2,291, and of deaths 2,358; in the year 1900 (a particularly unhealthy one) only 1,126 births and as many as 6,324 deaths were recorded, and if we assume the population to have been the same as in 1901, these figures give ratios of about fifteen and eighty-six per mille respectively. During the four years ending 1905, the average annual number of births registered has been 1,333, and of deaths 1,123; or, in other words, the birth-rate has averaged eighteen, and the death-rate fifteen per mille. Eliminating the districts, where the procedure is certainly faulty, the annual birth-rate at the capital during the last four years averages nearly forty, and the death-rate thirty per mille.

Vital
statistics.

Epidemics are of rare occurrence. The people suffer chiefly from mild malarial fever, pneumonia and bronchitis in consequence of their scanty clothing, or from diseases of the skin, guinea-worm and smallpox. There is a saying that neither mud, mosquitoes nor malaria are to be found in these regions, and malarial fevers are certainly not so severe as in other parts. Smallpox is less common than it used to be, and cholera was quite unknown till December 1899, when it broke out in the north-east, reached the capital in June 1900 and thence extended to the districts generally, but it died out in September after claiming some three or four thousand victims, and has not reappeared. Plague is fortunately still a stranger.

Diseases.

The number of afflicted persons fell from 296 in 1891 (239 blind, forty-four insane and thirteen lepers) to 58 in 1901 (forty blind, sixteen deaf-mutes and two insane); the decrease in the number of the blind is perhaps due to vaccination operations, but the recent famines have probably carried off most of the infirm.

Infirmities.

At the last census about 53·7 per cent of the people were males, but the percentage of females to males has been steadily increasing during the past twenty-five years, having been about seventy-seven in 1881, eighty-four in 1891, and eighty-six in 1901. Taking the population by religion, we find that in 1901 nearly fifty-three per cent. of the Hindus and fifty-six per cent. of the Musalmāns and

Sex and age.

*A large number of persons enumerated outside the Province gave their birthplace as Rājputāna, without mentioning any particular State; some probably belonged to Jaisalmer.

† Estimated at the time at from 40,000 to 50,000.

Animists were males, and it is only among the Jains that females predominated, forming fifty-three per cent. of the total number. Statistics relating to age are in no part of India very accurate, but, such as they are, they show the Musalmāns to live longest, 5·7 per cent. of them being sixty years of age or more; the similar figures for Hindus, Animists and Jains were 4·8, 4·4 and 3·2 per cent. respectively. Again, the women are longer lived than the men, especially among the Jains and Hindus; the excess of boys over girls under five years of age does not necessarily point to female infanticide which, though common in former days, is believed not to be now practised.

Civil
condition.

In 1901 more than fifty-one per cent. of the people were returned as unmarried, about thirty-five as married, and over thirteen per cent. as widowed. Of the males, about sixty-three, and of the females thirty-eight per cent. were single; there were 1,133 married females to 1,000 married males and 2,863 widows to 1,000 widowers. The relatively low proportion of unmarried women and the high proportion of widows are the results of the custom which enforces the early marriage of girls and discourages the remarriage of widows. Polygamy is said to be rare, and the excess of wives over husbands is ascribed chiefly to many married men having temporarily left the State. Among the males, thirty-four per cent. of the Musalmāns, thirty-seven of both Hindus and Animists, and thirty-nine per cent. of the Jains were married or widowed, while for females the similar percentages were:—Musalmāns fifty-six, Animists fifty-eight, Hindus sixty-three and Jains sixty-five. Early marriage prevails to some extent, especially among the Hindus and Animists. Of every 1,000 children under ten years of age, thirteen were married or widowed, and of every 1,000 girls under the same age, twenty-four were wives or widows; again, five per cent. of the children, and nine per cent. of the girls, under fifteen years of age were married or widowed. Polyandry is unknown, and divorce, though permissible, is seldom resorted to.

Language.

The language spoken by eighty per cent. of the people is Mārwarī, one of the four main groups of Rājasthānī; the variety most met with in Jaisalmer is that known as Thalī or the western Mārwarī of the desert. Another fourteen per cent. of the people speak Sindī, the most common dialect being called Tharelī. According to the census returns, a further four per cent. speak Jaipurī, another of the four main groups of Rājasthānī, but the State authorities point out that this is an error, and that Dhātī or *Dhāt-kz-bolī*, which is a form of Sindī and is said to take its name from the country around Umarkot which was formerly called Dhāt, should be substituted.

Castes and
tribes.

Of castes and tribes the following were most numerous at the last census:—Rājputs (31,313 or about 42½ per cent. of the total population); Chamārs (8,883 or twelve per cent.); Sheikhs (5,569 or 7½ per cent.); Mahājans or Baniās (5,248 or seven per cent.); and Brāhmans (3,710 or five per cent.).

More than one-third of the Rājputs are converts to Islām who, though found in every district, reside chiefly in the western half of the State and still retain many of their anicent customs and ideas. The Hindu Rājputs belong mostly to the ruling clan, Bhāti, but there are a good many Rāthors, and the Chauhāns, Sesodias, Solankis, etc., are all represented. In olden times the Bhātis, from their chief downwards, were famous for their plundering propensities; their looting of the royal treasure and their carrying off of Alā-ud-dīn's horses may be mentioned as instances. Within the last forty years, they have been described as a roving predatory class, committing dacoities in their own territory and in the neighbouring States; mounted, as they were, on swift camels and connected by marriage with numerous Rāthor families across the eastern and southern borders, with whom, when followed up, they found shelter, it was difficult to capture them red-handed. But though complaints against them are still received, it is believed that they have largely settled down as respectable subjects and are not quite so black as they are usually painted.

Rajputs.

Of the other castes mentioned above, the Chamārs are workers in leather, village servants and to some extent agriculturists; the Sheikhs, many of whom are Hindu converts, follow trade and cultivate land; the Mahājans, mostly of the Mahesrī and Oswāl divisions, are money-lenders and traders; and the Brāhmans, who are priests, shopkeepers and in the service of the State, belong chiefly to the Pushkarna, Srimāli, Joshī and Purohit sects.

Chamārs, etc.

In 1901 nearly seventy-one per cent. of the people were Hindus, more than twenty-five per cent. Musalmāns, two per cent. Animists, and about $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. Jains; there were also a couple of Sikhs and one Aryā. The various sects of the Hindus were not recorded, but the Sāktas or worshippers of the female energy (*śakti*) of the primordial male, Purusha or Siva, are said to be most numerous. The Muhammadans were all Sunnis; the Animists all Bhils of the village or cultivating class, having little or nothing in common with their wilder brethren who inhabit the hills in southern Rājputāna and being for all intents and purposes Hindus; while nearly ninety-nine per cent. of the Jains were of the Swetāmbara sect, the remainder being Dhūndias.

Religions.

Rather more than $36\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. of the people returned some form of agriculture as their principal means of subsistence, and a further nine per cent. were partially agriculturists. The industrial population amounted to nearly $43\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., the provision of food and drink giving employment to twenty-four per cent. and the weaving of cotton to about ten per cent., while seven per cent. were workers in leather. The commercial classes, such as money-lenders, general merchants and shopkeepers, formed 6·75 per cent., and the professional classes 2·60 per cent. The people generally lead a wandering life and are by nature hardy and healthy; many of them keep herds of camels, cattle, sheep and goats, and migrate regularly to Sind and Bahāwalpur in the cold weather.

Occupations.

Food, dress
and
dwellings.

The staple food of the masses is *bājra*, and of the well-to-do wheat or barley; milk enters largely into the diet of the people, and tobacco is in general use but has to be imported. Not much liquor is drunk, but a good deal of opium is consumed both as an occasional beverage and by *habitués* of the drug. Vegetables are scarce, the chief source of supply being the *khejra* tree. As in the desert parts of Jodhpur, during times of scarcity, many subsist on the roots and seeds of grass or the fresh bark of the tree just mentioned, while locusts are much prized as an article of diet, both in the fresh and preserved state. In the matter of dress, there is nothing particular to record; the majority are very poor, dress simply and cannot afford ornaments for their women. Their dwellings are usually circular huts, but here and there fine stone houses, some of which exhibit considerable ornamentation, are to be found. These houses were built by wealthy merchants, mostly Pāliwāl Brāhmans, to whom, in the old days, Jaisalmer was a favourite retreat, being remote from the scenes of war and exactions in the times of the Mughals, Marāthās and Pindāris.

Disposal of
dead.

The Hindus mostly cremate their dead, but infants who die before leaving their mother's breasts are buried, as also are Sanyāsīs, Gosains, Kābirpanthīs, Bishnoīs and Nāths. The Musalmāns always practise inhumation.

Games and
amusements.

Of games and amusements there is no great variety. The camel is ridden for pleasure as well as to accomplish journeys, and the riders often race against each other. Other amusements are dancing parties and musical entertainments, the instruments used being the *sārangi* or fiddle and the *tabla* or drum. Among the younger generation, popular games are *tāngal*, so called because all the players have to stand on one leg, and *kūndo*, a kind of hockey. In the first of these games each player has to hold his left foot in his right hand, and the leader of one party, shielded by the rest of his side, has to endeavour to hop across a line marked on the ground while the other party attempt to stop him; there is much charging and buffeting with the left hand on either side, and if any one loose hold of his left foot, he has to retire from the contest which continues till the leader has crossed the boundary or till he and the rest of his side have been disqualified.

Nomencla-
ture.

There is nothing peculiar in the system of nomenclature. The upper classes usually have two names, the first being of religious origin or given out of affection or fancy, and the second being representative of the caste or clan; for example, the Rājput's second name is usually Singh, the Brāhman's will be Mal or Karan or Prasād, the Mahājan's Lāl or Dās, etc. Among the lower classes there is generally one name, a diminutive of that of a higher class, *e.g.* Udā from Udai Singh, Birdhā from Birdhī Chand, and the like. In the names of places, the most common endings are:—*āla*,—*wāla* and—*wāli*, all meaning town, village or habitation;—*garh* (fort); and—*sar* (lake).

CHAPTER IV.

ECONOMIC.

The soil is for the most part light and sandy, and, as the rain sinks in and does not flow off the surface, a small rainfall suffices for the crops. In the north-east round Bāp and Bikampur, and in some districts adjacent to the capital, the soil is firmer and the storage of water becomes possible, but, speaking generally, only rain crops are grown, while in the Tanot, Kishangarh and Bārāwa-Buili *hukūmats* in the north-west and north and in Shāhgarh-Ghotāru in the west, there is practically no cultivation whatsoever. The system of agriculture is everywhere rude, and the implements are all of the old-fashioned variety. When the rains begin, the sandy land is ploughed by camels and the harder soil by bullocks; the seed is sown broadcast and, after it has sprouted, a few showers at long intervals bring it to maturity. The ploughs are light and merely scratch the surface, and, as the camels move quickly, it is possible for each cultivator to put a considerable area under crop. No agricultural statistics are available, but in ordinary years a good deal of cultivation goes on in the rains, and it is estimated that in favourable seasons (which are few and far between) the produce is just about sufficient for the immediate wants of the people.

AGRICULTURE.
General conditions.

Nearly 28,000 persons were returned in 1901 as dependent on pasture and agriculture, or about thirty-eight per cent. of the total. The actual workers included in these groups numbered twenty-six per cent. of the male population of the State and three per cent. of the female. In addition to these, about 6,600 persons recorded agriculture as a subsidiary occupation. Non-workers or dependents—chiefly women and children—formed twenty-three per cent. of the total population and as much as sixty per cent. of the population supported by agricultural labour.

Population dependent on agriculture.

The principal *kharīf* or autumn crops are *bājra* or spiked millet (*Pennisetum typhoideum*), *jowār* or great millet (*Sorghum vulgare*), the creeping pulses, *māng* (*Phaseolus mungo*) and *moth* (*P. aconitifolius*), and *tīl* or sesame (*Sesamum indicum*). Of these, *bājra* is the most important; it is sown as early as possible, takes about three months to ripen, and the average yield per acre is estimated at $1\frac{1}{2}$ cwt. provided the rainfall has been good and timely. *Jowār* is sown about the same time, takes a little longer to ripen, and yields about $2\frac{1}{4}$ cwt. per acre. The pulses are usually sown later and ripen in some six weeks if the rainfall be sufficient, while *tīl* is grown sometimes by itself and sometimes mixed with *bājra* or *jowār* and ripens in October or November. Tod mentions cotton as being "produced in the same soil as *bājra*," but it is not now cultivated. The *rabi* or spring crops are grown only in those parts where

Principal crops.

artificial irrigation is possible, and consequently not on a large scale; they consist of wheat, gram and, very occasionally, a little barley. Under favourable conditions the average yield of an acre sown with wheat or gram is said to be nearly six cwt.

Use of
manure.

Very little use is made of manure, but the cattle are sometimes penned in the fields so that their excreta may not be lost.

Live stock.

The wealth of the rural population consists almost entirely in their herds of camels, cattle, sheep and goats which thrive in spite of the arid nature of the country. The camels are looked on more as members of the family than dumb animals; they plough and harrow the ground, bring home the harvest, carry wood and water, and are both ridden and driven. Their milk is used as an article of diet and as a medicine; their wool is sold; and when they die, their skin is made into jars for holding *ghī* and oil. The Jaisalmer camels are famed for their easy paces, speed and hardiness, and can go long distances without food or water, subsisting for days on a little unrefined sugar and sulphate of alum, which are carried in the saddlebags. The best of the breed are smaller and finer in the head and neck than the ordinary camel of western Rājputāna, and will cover from eighty to one hundred miles in a night when emergency demands speed. Prices range from Rs. 60 to Rs. 300. Cattle, goats and sheep are extensively bred, and are of a good class; many of the bullocks are exported to Sind and Gujarāt. Goats supply the great bulk of the animal food of the country, and their milk is in general use as an article of diet; sheep, on the other hand, are kept chiefly for their wool, but large numbers are exported and, though small, fatten well and, when carefully fed, yield excellent mutton. The average prices of the various animals are (in British currency):—female buffalo Rs. 50; bullock or cow Rs. 30; male buffalo Rs. 10; and sheep or goat Rs. 3 to Rs. 7, according to age.

Pasture
grounds.

In years of good rainfall there is an abundance of pasturage, the Pāli jungles in the north and *bīrs* in other parts producing excellent grasses; but the difficulty of water is almost always present, for where it exists, it is generally bad. In adverse seasons the cattle are taken away to more favoured places.

Irrigation.

Some eighty years ago, any attempt to water the land for the production of spring crops was viewed as a crime and punished accordingly, the generally accepted idea being that Providence would supply the wants of the country and to supplement the efforts of nature was wrong. This superstition, which was probably started by the notorious minister, Sālim Singh, in order to ruin the Pāliwāl Brāhmans who, generations before, had spent large sums of money on the construction of *kharīns*, has of course long exploded. Irrigation on any large scale is, however, impossible as no perennial streams exist, the wells are too deep to be used for this purpose, the country is for the most part sandy, and the rainfall is always scanty. It is only where the soil is harder and the surroundings hilly and rocky that irrigation becomes possible from *kharīns* or shallow depressions into which the rain-water flows. In a very few cases

the water thus stored is conveyed by ducts to adjacent land, but the usual custom is to sow wheat and gram in the beds of these tanks.

As already observed, the majority of the *kharīns* were constructed by the Pāliwāl Brāhmans, and from the time when these people were driven out of the State until 1892 they were entirely neglected and fell into disrepair. During the last fourteen years, the Darbār has done much to restore them and to build new ones, and the total expenditure has been approximately Rs. 82,000; some of the people have also been persuaded, by a promise of the right of cultivation and some reduction in the land revenue, to construct several of these useful irrigation works at their own cost, and to agree to keep them in good order. The result is that there are at the present time more than 500 *kharīns* in the State, of which nearly 400 are used for cultivation in years of sufficient rainfall; the principal are Bhūj and Masūrdi to the south-west of the capital, Dāiya to the north-west, and Mānchitīa near Bāp in the north-east. The *kharīns* have never been surveyed, but the area of their beds and of land in the vicinity irrigable from them has been roughly estimated at about 30,000 acres or forty-seven square miles. The area actually sown with spring crops is, of course, much less and depends on the rainfall at each tank.

Rents in the proper sense of the term do not exist in the *khālsa* villages; the Darbār deals directly with the cultivators and collects its land revenue without the intervention of any middleman. In *jāgīr* estates and in those held as charitable grants (*sāsan*), the holders take as rent either a share of the produce, varying from one-fifth to one-eleventh, or a sum of Rs. 2 (local currency) for as much land as can be cultivated with a pair of bullocks.

RENTS.

Wages appear to have remained almost stationary during the last thirty years, and are still often paid partly or wholly in kind, especially in the cases of village artisans, agricultural labourers, domestic servants, and the horsekeepers or syces employed by the Darbār. At the present time the average monthly wages (converted into British currency) are:—ordinary labourer Rs. 3 to Rs. 4; syce Rs. 4; domestic servant Rs. 5; and mason or carpenter about Rs. 10, although skilled workmen receive more than this.

WAGES.

Of prices in olden days not very much is known. Tod, some seventy-five years ago, wrote:—"Bājra, in plentiful seasons, sells at one and a half maunds" (i.e. sixty seers) "for a rupee; but this does not often occur, as they calculate five bad seasons for a good one." In 1865 the price of *bājra* was from 8 to 9 seers per rupee, and ten years later it was reported to be 27 seers against an average for the preceding decade of $13\frac{1}{2}$ seers. Table No. VIII in Vol. III-B gives the average price of certain food grains and salt since 1884, and the figures have been taken from the official publication entitled *Prices and Wages in India*; it should be remembered that the period 1891—1900 included not only two years of famine (1899-1900), which have been left out of account, but three years of scarcity. Nevertheless food grains seem to be on the whole dearer than they were sixteen or twenty years ago, and the railways, though they flank

PRICES.

the State on every side, are not sufficiently near to materially affect prices. In the famine of 1899-1900 the highest quotations were: wheat and gram 7 seers, *jowār* $7\frac{3}{4}$ seers, and barley and *bājra* 8 seers per rupee.

MINERALS.

The mineral products of Jaisalmer consist of salt, limestone, sandstone, *kankar* and clay.

Salt.

Salt of fair quality is found in several localities, but is now manufactured only at Kānod, about twenty miles north-east of the capital. This *rann* or salt-marsh lies at the head of a rocky valley, separating the stony desert from the sandy and waterless one which extends northward to the Bahāwalpur State, and has an area of about twelve square miles. Brine is found ten feet below the surface, and is drawn from pits by the weighted pole and bucket; it is then exposed to evaporation in pans, and a small-grained white salt is obtained. By the agreement of 1879 with the Government of India the out-turn is limited to 15,000 maunds (or about 540 tons) a year, entirely for local consumption and use, and the quantity actually manufactured is said to average about 300 tons yearly.

Limestone.

The limestone of Jaisalmer has for centuries been famous, and was used for some of the elaborate inlaid work of the Tāj Mahal at Agra. The quarries are mostly within a few miles of the capital, and the stone is very fine, even-grained and compact, of a buff or light brown colour, and admirably adapted for carving. Slabs have been transported to Upper Sind and used for Musalmān tombstones, and these, although of considerable antiquity, are generally remarkable for the sharpness of the engraving. One variety of limestone was formerly employed for lithographic blocks and, though not suited for fine chalk drawings, could be used, it was said, for all other purposes with the ordinary materials; its composition was reported to be 97·5 per cent. of calcium carbonate and 2·5 per cent. of a yellow earth resembling bole, and it took a fair polish. Another variety called Abur or Hābur from the village (twenty-eight miles north-west of the capital) where it is quarried, contains large quantities of an iron ore resembling red ochre and is used for flooring the most sacred parts of temples.

Sandstone.

Sandstone of good quality is found near Jaisalmer town and at Bhadāsar seventeen miles to the north-west; it is worked chiefly at the latter place where it is of a reddish brown colour and, being very hard, is used for making millstones.

Clays.

The clays consist of fullers' earth or *Multāni mitti*, quarried at four places—Māndhan, Mandai, Nedai and Rāmgarh—in the north, used locally as a hair-wash and exported to some extent for the manufacture of the better grades of pottery; *geru*, found in small lumps in the south-east, yellow in colour and used for dyeing tents and clothes; and *seri mitti*, also found in the south-east and used as a whitewash.

The average yearly out-turn of limestone is reported to be about 1,100 tons; of sandstone 200 tons; and of the various clays 400 tons.

The manufactures are unimportant and consist of coarse cotton cloths; woollen shawls or *loīs*, of fine texture and good quality, and blankets; small bags and druggets of goats' and camels' hair; and cups, platters and paper-weights of the limestone of the country.

MANUFACTURES.

In former times the town of Jaisalmer, from its position on the direct route between the valley of the Indus on the west and the Punjab and United Provinces to the north and east, was a commercial mart of some importance. Caravans of camels were constantly passing through the State, carrying the indigo of the Doāb, the opium of Kotah and Mālwa, the famed sugar-candy of Bikaner, and iron implements from Jaipur to Shikārpur and lower Sind, and returning with ivory, dates, cocoanuts, drugs, scented wood and dried fruits. Tod writes that the transit-duty levied on these goods at one time reached three lakhs of rupees a year, but the bad faith of the minister, the predatory habits of the Bhātis and the general decrease of commerce conspired to almost annihilate this source of income. In the famine of 1869, which affected Jaisalmer to a small extent only, no less than 235,000 camel-loads, representing over a million maunds of grain, passed through from Sind and Bahāwalpur to Jodhpur, and a large portion of the sum for which this grain was sold (some twenty-five lakhs of rupees) was taken back through the State without a single robbery or dacoity being committed. Since then, railways have been constructed on all sides and the through trade is now insignificant, the yearly receipts from transit-duty averaging barely Rs. 2,500.

COMMERCE AND TRADE.

At the present time, the trade is mostly with Sind, the chief exports being wool and woollen articles, *ghē*, camels, cattle, sheep, hides, fullers' earth and a little building stone; the imports include grain, cotton, sugar, opium, tobacco, oil and piece-goods. Export and port, as well as transit-duties, are still levied and bring in nearly Rs. 50,000 a year, import-duties accounting for about two-thirds of this sum. For the transport of merchandise, camels are almost always used, and the principal trading castes are the Mahājans, and to a less extent the Sheikhs and Brāhmans.

No railways traverse the State, but the North-Western Railway runs at a distance varying from thirty to ninety miles from the northern and western borders, while at a similar distance from the southern and eastern boundaries is the Jodhpur-Bikaner Railway; the station nearest to the capital is Bārmer on the line last mentioned and distant about ninety-five miles nearly due south. The length of metalled roads is 6, and of unmetalled 119 miles. The former are all at or in the vicinity of the capital, while the latter are mere sandy tracks leading to Bārmer, Pokaran and other places, and sometimes marked by mile-stones. These roads and the numerous foot-paths found everywhere are passable all the year round, but where there are shifting sands, as in the west, the track is not easy to find. An Imperial post office was established at the town of Jaisalmer in March 1888 and still exists, being the only one in the State; the mails are carried by runners to and from Bārmer railway station, the journey

MEANS OF COMMUNICATION.

occupying about twenty-eight hours. In the Bāp *hukūmat* in the north-east, letters are brought once a week to the village of the same name from the adjacent post office at Phalodi in Jodhpur. The Darbār maintains a small staff of camel *sowārs*, who carry letters, etc., twice a month to various parts of the country, an arrangement which sufficiently meets all requirements. The nearest telegraph office is at the railway station of Bārmer.

FAMINE.
General
conditions.

The State is visited by constant scarcities caused by short rainfall or damage done by locusts; indeed, hardly a year passes in which a failure of crops does not occur in some part of Jaisalmer. Yet the people suffer less than one would expect as emigration is an annual event, whatever be the nature of the season. Practically the only harvest is the *kharīf*, and as soon as it is gathered, large numbers leave every year to find employment in Sind and Bahāwalpūr. Further, the inhabitants are, by nature and of necessity, self-reliant, as well as indifferent, if not adverse, to assistance from the State coffers, and many of them consider it so derogatory to be seen earning wages on relief works in their own country that they prefer migration. The Darbār, though its revenue is small, has, during recent years, done a great deal to relieve distress and in the matter of repairing and constructing reservoirs for the storage of water, but a scanty rainfall means not only no crops or indifferent ones, but also difficulty in finding water for man and beast, as well as grass and fodder; and the result is that, on the first approach of scarcity, the people leave in larger numbers than usual with their flocks and herds. Emigration, consequently, has always been, and must continue to be, the main form of relief.

History.

1891-92.

No detailed accounts are available of the famines or scarcities prior to 1891-92, but the State is said to have suffered severely in 1812-13 and to have been only slightly affected in 1868-69 and in 1877-78. Deficient rainfall in 1891 caused a more or less general failure of the crops and about three times the usual amount of emigration. Relief works were started but entirely failed to attract labour, and had to be completed by contract; a small sum was spent on gratuitous relief. Prices ruled high, namely, wheat about 8 seers, *bājra* 9 seers, *jowār* 10½ seers, and grass three maunds per rupee; and more than 13,000 head of cattle are said to have died, but they were probably the least valuable. The direct expenditure on relief was small (about Rs. 4,000), but, including remissions of land revenue and losses from sources other than land, this visitation cost the State about Rs. 68,000.

1895-97.

In 1895 the average rainfall for the whole State was 3.16 inches, and in the following year 3.46 inches; the result was a scarcity, not approaching to famine conditions, over two-thirds of the territory, the northern and western districts being worst off. In 1895-96 there was rather a deficiency of water and fodder than of grain, while in 1896-97 the reverse was the case. Relief works and poor-houses were started in December 1895 and not closed till July 1897, but the largest number on relief of either kind never quite reached 2,000 on

any one day. The price of *bājra* ranged between $8\frac{1}{4}$ and $10\frac{1}{2}$ seers, and of barley between $6\frac{1}{4}$ and 10 seers per rupee, and one-fourth of the population with more than 107,000 head of cattle emigrated. The direct expenditure on this occasion was about Rs. 40,000, but the land revenue was largely remitted and the losses from other sources were considerable. The committee of the Charitable Relief Fund at Calcutta allotted Rs. 19,000 for distribution in Jaisalmer, but it is noticeable that only Rs. 7,500 were spent, almost entirely in purchasing cattle.

The famine of 1899-1900 was the worst of which there is any record; certain districts received no rain, and the average for the State was less than an inch. This was consequently a *trikāl* or triple famine, in which grain, water and fodder were alike scarce. Between forty and fifty thousand persons emigrated, and it was estimated that the State lost about 148,000 horned cattle and more than 7,400 camels. Relief works and poor-houses were open for twelve months, and during this period 410,122 units were relieved, the largest number on relief on any one day being 1,764 towards the end of May 1900. Practically no land revenue was collected, and the Government of India came to the assistance of the Darbār with a loan of half a lakh, which sum approximately represents the direct cost of the operations. This famine is remarkable for the appearance for the first time in history of cholera which, between December 1899 and September 1900, claimed from three to four thousand victims.

The scarcity of 1901-02, though not intense, was general, and the relief measures cost the State Rs. 14,000, to meet which a further loan from the Government of India became necessary.

CHAPTER V.

ADMINISTRATIVE.

ADMINISTRATION.

During the minority of Mahārāwal Sālīvāhan the administration is being conducted by a *Dīvān* and Council of four members under the general superintendence of the Resident, Western Rājputāna States. The State is divided into sixteen districts or *hukūmats*, in each of which is an official termed *Hākīm*. A reference to Table No. VII in Vol. III-B will show that the districts vary in size from 262 to 2,200 square miles, and that each contains on the average only about thirty villages and 4,140 inhabitants.

CIVIL AND CRIMINAL JUSTICE.

Jaisalmer has no code of laws of its own, and the courts are guided generally by the enactments of British India, such as the Civil and Criminal Procedure Codes and the Indian Penal Code.

Courts of *Hākims*, etc.

The lowest courts are those of the *Hākims*; fourteen of them have powers in civil suits not exceeding Rs. 250 in value and, as magistrates, can punish with imprisonment up to fifteen days and fine up to Rs. 50, while the remaining two (at Bāp and Nokh), as well as the *Kotwāl* at the capital, try civil suits not exceeding Rs. 400 in value and can pass a sentence of one month's imprisonment and Rs. 50 fine. Appeals against the decisions of the above tribunals lie to the *Sadr* Civil or the *Sadr* Criminal court, as the case may be. Most of the smaller civil suits are referred to a *pañchāyat* of three or more members appointed by the parties concerned, the award being final, or, if the parties cannot agree, to a body known as a *sultāni pañchāyat* and nominated by the presiding judge (*Hākīm* or *Kotwāl*), but in these cases the award is not final and an appeal is allowed to the *Sadr* Civil court.

Sadr Civil court.

The court last mentioned tries suits beyond the powers of the *Hākims* and *Kotwāl* and up to any value, but appeals lie to the *Dīvān* and decrees for sums exceeding Rs. 5,000 are subject to the confirmation of the Resident. Here again many of the cases are decided by arbitrators chosen by the parties, and their award is final.

Sadr Criminal court.

The *Sadr* Criminal court takes up cases beyond the powers of the *Hākims*, etc., and can sentence to imprisonment up to one year and fine up to Rs. 300; if a heavier punishment be deemed necessary, the proceedings are submitted to the *Dīvān*, to whom also appeals lie.

Dīvān's court.

The *Dīvān*, besides hearing appeals against the orders of the *Sadr* Civil and Criminal courts, tries such original cases as are beyond the powers of the latter and can sentence up to two years' imprisonment and Rs. 500 fine; sentences exceeding these limits and all sentences in cases of homicide and dacoity are subject to the confirmation of the Resident.

Resident's court.

The court of the Resident is the highest in the State; besides dealing with such cases as require its confirmation, it can call for the proceedings in any case and revise the orders passed.

The work of the courts is not heavy. During the ten years ending 1900, the average annual number of original civil suits decided was 268 (of which 250 were dealt with by subordinate courts), while the figures for 1903-04, 1904-05 and 1905-06 were 290, 409 and 387 respectively. The number of criminal cases disposed of was 251 in 1903-04, 320 in 1904-05, and 532 in 1905-06, as compared with a yearly average of 473 during the decade ending 1900.

Of the revenue of the State in former times very little is on record. Tod wrote that the personal revenue of the chief "is, or rather was, estimated at upwards of four lakhs of rupees," the chief sources being transit-duties which, it is asserted, "have amounted to the almost incredible sum of three lakhs," and land revenue; while a hearth-tax called *dhuān* (literally "smoke"), levied from every house, brought in about Rs. 20,000, and an arbitrary impost "universally known and detested under the name of *dind*, the make-weight of all their budgets of ways and means" contributed anything between Rs. 2,700 and Rs. 80,000. The yearly revenue of the nobles was roughly estimated by Tod at about two lakhs.

FINANCE.
In former
times.

When the Governor-General's Agent visited Jaisalmer in 1865 to instal the late Mahārāwal, detailed accounts of the income and expenditure of the State for the previous three years were handed to him and, though probably not very reliable, showed the average revenue to be about Rs. 1,06,000 and the expenditure about Rs. 1,22,000 a year. The chief sources of income were customs-duties, land revenue, judicial fees, minting operations and a tax on houses; while the main items of expenditure were cost of administration, including civil list, Rs. 60,000, and army and police Rs. 45,000. The debts exceeded the assets by about a lakh, this sum being due partly to merchants and partly to the troops who received half of their pay monthly and the other half in arrears every third or fourth year.

During the next twenty-five years (1865—90), the ordinary revenue appears to have ranged between one and two lakhs a year and the expenditure usually exceeded the income, with the result that when Mahārāwal Bairi Sāl died in 1891 the debts, including arrears of pay, were found to amount to about $3\frac{3}{4}$ lakhs. All these figures are in the local currency, the rupee of which was at that time of about the same value as the similar British coin. In the succeeding decade the ordinary revenue averaged Rs. 1,57,000 in the local currency, which had greatly depreciated in exchange value, but a series of bad or indifferent seasons commencing from 1895 has not only reduced the receipts, particularly under customs and land revenue, but has necessitated much extraordinary expenditure, to meet which the Darbār has had to borrow money from the Government of India and in the open market.

Income and
expenditure
since 1865.

At the present time, the ordinary *khālśa* or fiscal revenue of the State may be said to be nearly a lakh of rupees (*Imperial) a year, derived chiefly from customs (Rs. 45,000), land revenue (Rs. 15,000), grazing fees (Rs. 7,000), court-fees and fines (Rs. 6,000) and salt

Present state
of finances.

* 150 local rupees have been assumed to be equal to 100 British; the rate of exchange, however, fluctuates almost daily.

(Rs. 5,000). Similarly the ordinary expenditure may be put at about Rs. 85,000 (*Imperial), the main items being cost of administrative staff, civil and judicial, Rs. 20,000; army and police Rs. 18,000; privy purse and palace, including cost of the Mahārāwal's education, Rs. 12,000; stables, including bullocks, camels and elephants, Rs. 10,000; and allowances to relatives of the chief Rs. 6,000. The debts now amount to about Rs. 2,40,000, the Government of India being practically the sole creditor, and the realisable assets, including cash balance in the treasury, are estimated at Rs. 53,000.

The income derived by *jāgīrdārs* and others from the land which they hold on favoured tenures is believed to be about Imperial Rs. 50,000 in an ordinary year, thus making the total revenues of the State approximately a lakh and a half.

Currency.

The local currency is called Akhai Shāhi after Rāwal Akhai Singh, who is said to have established a mint at his capital in 1756 in defiance of orders from Delhi, but his successor Mulrāj obtained the necessary sanction from Shāh Alam II. Prior to 1756, Muhammad Shāhi coins were the circulating medium. The old Akhai Shāhi rupee weighed 168.75 grains and contained only 4.22 grains of alloy, but the issue gradually deteriorated until the alloy reached as much as twelve per cent. Thākur Kesri Singh, who was minister about forty years ago, tried to restore the purity, but as he at the same time reduced the weight of the coin, his action was distrusted, and he was obliged to abandon the attempt.

The silver coins may be divided into two groups, namely those bearing the name of Muhammad Shāh and those bearing that of Her late Majesty. The latter consisted of the rupee, and eight-anna, four-anna and two-anna bits, and were struck in 1860, though not brought into circulation until 1863. The inscriptions on either side are in Persian, that on the reverse being to the effect that the coin was minted "in the 22nd year of Her fortunate reign"—an obvious mistake for the 24th year; the special mint marks are circles of dots, the *pālam* (a sacred bird), and the *chhātā* or regal umbrella. The rupee weighs about 162½ grains, and only ten years ago was worth more than fifteen Imperial annas, but it now exchanges for between ten and eleven annas; its value fluctuates almost daily and has been as low as nine annas. The depreciation of the Akhai Shāhi rupee is ascribed to imprudent over-coinage in former times, to the closure of the Government mints to the unrestricted coinage of silver, and to a series of bad years. A failure of the crops means an increased demand for the Imperial rupee wherewith to purchase grain in Sind, and this increased demand means a fall in the exchange value of the local currency. The Jaisalmer mint has not been worked since 1899, and the Akhai Shāhi rupees are to be converted on the first favourable opportunity.

The copper coinage is known as Dodiā; it is said to have been first struck in 1660 and there was a further issue about 1836. Each

*150 local rupees have been assumed to be equal to 100 British; the rate of exchange, however, fluctuates almost daily.

coin weighs from eighteen to twenty grains, and forty go to an anna. Gold *mohurs* and smaller pieces have been minted in small numbers since 1860, and are said to be of pure gold. The inscription is the same as on the later silver coins, and the *mohur* weighs 167 grains.

The land revenue system is primitive, having undergone no changes for a long period, and neither a survey nor a settlement has been made. In a few places the revenue is paid in cash at Rs. 2 (local currency) for as much land as can be cultivated with a pair of bullocks, the tax being called *halota* from *hal* (a plough); but throughout the State payment in kind is most common. Where wheat or gram is grown, the Darbār takes from one-fifth to one-sixth of the produce, and of the rain crops from one-fifth to one-eleventh. There are four different modes of estimating the Darbār's share of the out-turn. In the first (*kankūt*), the crop is valued when standing; in the second (*kari kūnta*), when cut but before threshing; in the third (*lātā*), after the crop has been threshed out; and in the fourth (*kāngar kūnta*), from the condition of the bare standing stalks. In addition to the portion payable to the State, the cultivator has to settle the demands of certain officials and servants, such as the keeper of the *kothār* or State granary, the chief's water-carrier, and the man told off to watch the crops in the Darbār's interests; these demands collectively amount to about one-half of what is taken by the State. For example, if the out-turn be one hundred maunds and the State's share one-tenth, then ten maunds would go to the Darbār, five to the above officials and eighty-five maunds to the cultivator.

Of the 471 villages in Jaisalmer, 239 are *khālśa*, 109 are held on the *jāgīr* tenure, 99 in *bhūm*, and 24 are *sāsan* or charitable grants.

In the *khālśa* area the Darbār retains all its proprietary rights in the land and deals directly with the *ryots* or cultivators; in the rest of the territory it has transferred those rights, temporarily or permanently, to some individual, subject to certain conditions.

The *jāgīrdārs* may be divided into three main groups, namely (i) the Rājwīs, or near relatives of the chief, who, besides possessing one or more villages, receive fixed monthly allowances; (ii) the Raolots or more distant relations of the chief; and (iii) the ordinary Thākurs. All have to serve the Mahārāwal when called upon and present him with a horse on certain occasions such as his installation and marriage, and some pay a fee called *neota* on themselves succeeding to their estates. The tenure seems to differ from that ordinarily found in Rājputāna in that, except in the case of the Rao of Bīkampur, no annual tribute is paid, and it is not the custom, on the death of a *jāgīrdār*, to issue a fresh title-deed or *pattā* in favour of his eldest son or heir; the majority of the *jāgīrdārs* may be said to hold in perpetuity, though they can of course be dispossessed for contumacy or any grave offence. There are, however, eleven villages which are held under title-deed, and ten as a reward for services rendered; the holders pay nothing, are liable for service, and retain their estates at the pleasure of the Darbār.

LAND
REVENUE.
General
system.

Tenures.

Khālśa.

Jāgīr.

A list of the more important *jāgīrdārs* will be found in Table No. IX in Vol. III-B; all except the Thākūr of Khuri belong to the Bhāti clan, which is divided into a number of septs known as Barsang, Khīān, Tejmatot, Prithwīrājot, Dwārkadāsot, Udai Singhot, etc. Among the first two of these subdivisions, the eldest son succeeds his father, and his brothers, if he has any, are allowed to cultivate, free of rent, as much land as they can themselves, or they may employ one or two men and cultivate through them; among the remaining septs the law of gavelkind prevails, and copartners in a village are often very numerous, the property of each consisting sometimes of one or two fields.

Bhūm.

The *bhūmiās*, or those holding on the *bhūm* tenure, have to render service when called on, receiving remuneration for the same, and pay a small cess yearly as well as an additional sum on certain special occasions; provided these payments are punctually made, they are left undisturbed in their possessions.

Sāsan.

Lands are granted on the *sāsan* tenure in charity or from religious motives to Brāhmans, Chārāns, Bhāts, etc., and enjoy complete immunity from all State dues; they are to all intents and purposes grants in perpetuity. In former times, these villages were considered as outside the Mahārāwal's jurisdiction, and if a criminal fled to any of them for refuge, he found a sanctuary.

MISCELLANEOUS
REVENUE.
Opium.

The miscellaneous revenue is derived from opium, salt and excise, and averages about Rs. 11,000 or Rs. 12,000 yearly.

The poppy is of course not cultivated in Jaisalmer, and all the opium consumed in the State is imported *viā* Bārmer (on the Jodhpur-Bikaner Railway) where, under an arrangement with the Jodhpur Darbār, the import-duty is levied. This duty, formerly Rs. 26 per maund, was raised to Rs. 80 in 1882 and to Rs. 100 (Imperial) in 1893; and of the sum last mentioned the Jodhpur Darbār retains Rs. 5. A good deal of opium used to be imported—for example, the receipts during the six months ending February 1884 exceeded Rs. 20,000—but, with bad times, the demand for the drug has decreased and the receipts are now about Rs. 5,500 yearly. This import-duty is the sole source of revenue in connection with opium as no license-fees are demanded from the wholesale or retail shops.

Salt.

The salt consumed in the State is all manufactured at Kānod; the yearly income derived from the sale of the commodity is about Rs. 5,000, and the average annual consumption per head is said to be a little more than two seers.

Excise.

The excise revenue is insignificant, consisting of a few hundred rupees paid yearly by a contractor who has the sole right of selling spirits. The people prefer opium, but those who take liquor are quite content with the local variety.

PUBLIC
WORKS
DEPARTMENT.

No regular Public Works department exists, but an overseer is permanently employed and sees to the repairs of roads and buildings, the ordinary expenditure being about Rs. 1,500 a year or less. The only works of any note carried out during the last fifteen years have been several *kharāns* or tanks for storing water; a comfortable house

outside the town-wall, which cost about Rs. 30,000 and is available for guests; the hospital and lunatic asylum (about Rs. 3,200); and the cenotaph of the late Mahārāwal (about Rs. 4,000).

The military force maintained by the State numbers about 220 of all ranks, namely, 39 *sowārs*, mostly mounted on camels, 168 foot-soldiers and 13 gunners, and costs about Rs. 10,000 a year. The men are armed with swords and ordinary smooth-bore matchlocks, and are neither trained nor drilled; they are employed as guards and escorts, and often perform police duties. Out of twenty-five pieces of ordnance, seventeen are said to be serviceable. ARMY.

The strength of the police force is about 140 men, half of whom are mounted on camels, and the yearly cost is about Rs. 8,000. The police and the army are hardly distinguishable, as the one frequently assists the other. Adding the two forces together, we get a total of 360 men, or about one policeman for every forty-five square miles of country and for every 204 inhabitants. POLICE.

The State possesses a jail at the capital and small lockups at the headquarters of the various districts; the latter are under the supervision of the *Hākims*, and are intended only for persons who are under trial or who have been sentenced to short terms of imprisonment. Up to about twenty years ago, prisoners at the capital were confined in insanitary cells in the basement of the fort or in such other places as the authorities selected; the present building, although not originally meant for a prison, has been altered and improved from time to time and is now fairly comfortable, well ventilated and well kept. It has accommodation for 88 persons (eighty males and eight females), and the daily average strength since 1894 (when returns were received for the first time) has been about 48. The yearly cost of maintenance varies between Rs. 1,200 and Rs. 2,500 (British) and averages about Rs. 1,500; there are no jail industries of importance. Some further details will be found in Table No. X in Vol. III-B, and in explanation of the high death-rate in 1900, it may be said that it was a year of famine and that eight of the twelve deaths were due to cholera. JAILS.

At the last census 2,164 persons or 2·95 per cent. of the people (namely 5·38 per cent. of the males and 0·13 per cent. of the females) were returned as able to read and write. Thus, in regard to the literacy of its population, Jaisalmer stood tenth among the twenty States and chiefships of Rājputāna. Of the three main religions, the Jains are, as usual, first with 21½ per cent. literate, the Hindus follow at a considerable interval with 3½ per cent., and the Musalmāns are last with only 0·27 per cent. The number literate in English was eighteen. EDUCATION.

Up to about 1890, the only schools in the State were of the indigenous type, the teachers being mostly Jatis or Jain priests; these institutions have held their own, and are still much appreciated, especially by the trading castes who are generally content with a little knowledge of the vernacular and the native system of arithmetic and accounts for their sons. In 1890 three schools were opened by the Darbār, namely two at the capital (in one of which an attempt was

made to teach some English but was not persevered in) and the third at Bāp; but they were never popular, and the number on the rolls of all three institutions in 1901 was only about seventy. Since then, although there are still but three schools, considerable progress has been made; the teaching of English has been resumed at the capital, and the staff generally is more efficient. The number on the rolls at the end of October 1906 was 180 as compared with 91 on the 31st March 1904 and 183 on the 31st March 1905, and the daily average attendance was 47 in 1903-04, 112 in 1904-05, and 107 during 1905-06. The schools are all for boys, and no fees are charged anywhere. The expenditure on education, now about Rs. 1,100 a year, is met from a small tax on *bājra*, *jowār* and *ghī* brought into Jaisalmer town.

MEDICAL.
Hospitals.

The State maintains a hospital at the capital, and it was opened in April 1892; for three years there was no accommodation for indoor patients but six beds were provided in 1895-96. In Table No. XII in Vol. III-B will be found a full account of the work done; about 4,700 cases (thirty-seven being those of in-patients) are treated yearly, and some 250 operations are performed. The daily average number of in-patients attending is three, and of out-patients sixty-one, while the cost of maintaining the institution is about Rs. 2,300 yearly.

Lunatic
asylum.

Formerly insane persons were lodged in the jail, but a comfortable lunatic asylum was built just outside in 1898-99. It is, however, very little used as insanity is rare.

Vaccination.

Vaccination was started for the first time in December 1890, and has been carried on with considerable success ever since (see Table No. XIII in Vol. III-B), though a falling off is noticeable during the last three seasons. The children of the capital and some adjacent villages are now well protected, but it is not easy to reach the semi-nomadic population of the outlying districts. The total number of persons successfully vaccinated was 150 in 1890-91, 3,124 in 1894-95, 2,105 in 1900-01 and 818 in 1905-06, or about 1·4, 27, 18·2, and 11 per 1,000 of the population respectively. The average cost of each successful case has varied between fourteen pies in 1894-95 and ten annas in 1905-06.

Sale of
quinine.

The system of selling pice packets of quinine has been in force for some time, but the sales are very small, and in 1905-06 only seven packets of 7-grain doses each were disposed of.

SURVEY.

The State was surveyed by the Great Trigonometrical Survey of India between 1873 and 1880, and is included in what are known as the Jodhpur and the Eastern Sind Meridional Series. The territory was also topographically surveyed by the Survey of India between 1881 and 1883, and the area, as calculated in the Surveyor-General's office by planimeter from the standard sheets, is 16,062 square miles.

CHAPTER VI.

JAISALMER TOWN.

The town of Jaisalmer, the capital of the State of the same name, is situated in $26^{\circ} 55'$ north and $70^{\circ} 55'$ east, about ninety-five miles north of Bārmer station on the Jodhpur-Bikaner Railway, and approximately 1,200 miles north-west of Calcutta and 600 north of Bombay. It was founded in 1156 by Rāwal Jaisal, whence its name—the *meru* or hill-fort made by Jaisal.

The population at each census was 10,965 in 1881, 10,509 in 1891, and 7,137 in 1901; the decrease of thirty-two per cent. since 1891 was due chiefly to a severe outbreak of cholera which, between the 20th June and the 16th July 1900, carried off 2,154 persons. In 1901 Hindus numbered 5,371, or more than seventy-five per cent. of the total; Musalmāns 1,349 or nearly nineteen per cent.; and Jains 232.

The town stands at the southern end of a low range of hills, and is surrounded by a stone wall about three miles in circuit, ten to fifteen feet high, five to seven feet thick, and strengthened by bastions and corner towers. Within this wall, on an isolated hill to the south, is the fort which is about 250 feet above the surrounding country and 500 yards long by 250 wide at its greatest diameter.

The two main entrances to the town, the Amarsāgar gate on the west and the Gharsisar gate on the east, are connected by a metalled and paved road which is the principal thoroughfare; it is fairly wide in most parts, and near the custom-house opens out and is used as a market-place. The other streets are chiefly narrow and dusty alleys—narrowest where some of the finest houses stand, as the well-to-do were able to encroach on them when rebuilding or improving their residences. A large portion of the space within the walls is unoccupied, but the ruins lying about prove that the place must have been far more populous in former times. Water is obtained chiefly from the Gharsisar tank, 300 yards south-east of the gate of the same name and said to have been constructed by Rāwal Gharsi nearly six hundred years ago, and also from wells, the best of which is behind the jail. There are several other tanks, but they rarely hold water after the rains have ceased, and then only in small quantities.

The hill on which the fort stands is entirely covered by buildings and defences, and the base is surrounded by a buttress wall of solid blocks of stone about fifteen feet high, above which the hill projects and supports the ramparts. The bastions are in the form of half towers, surmounted by high turrets and joined by short thick walls; these again support battlements which form a complete chain of defence about thirty feet above the hill. The view from the ramparts is not attractive; the foreground presents a succession of sterile, rock-bound ridges, barely clad with stunted bushes, while, on the horizon, low undulations mark

the commencement of the Indian desert. The fort is approached from the town by four gates, called respectively the Akhai Pol, Ganesh Pol, Būta Pol and Hawā Pol. The Mahārāwal's palace, the top of which is 957 feet above the sea, surmounts the main entrance, and is an imposing pile crowned by a huge umbrella of metal mounted on a stone shaft, a solid emblem of dignity of which the Bhāti chiefs are justly proud; but the interior is ill-arranged and space is frittered away in numberless small apartments. The water-supply is derived from five wells, varying in depth from 236 to 300 feet; the best well, known as Jaisalu, never fails and the water is excellent. Within the fort are four Vaishnava and eight Jain temples. Of the former, one is said to have been built in the twelfth century by Rāwal Jaisal and is called Ad-Nārāyan's or Tikamji's temple, while another, ascribed to Rāwal Lākhan, is remarkable as possessing gold and silver plated shutters. The Jain temples, especially that dedicated to Pārasnāth, are very fine, the carving in them being exquisite; tradition says that one or two of them are 1,400 years old, but this is extremely improbable as the town and fort were only founded 750 years ago, and it is believed that the oldest, that to Pārasnāth, was built about 1332 by one Jai Singh Cholasāh.

The citadel, town-wall and all the principal houses, being built of the yellow limestone of which the hill itself is composed, have at a distance a sombre appearance from the want of a variety of colours to relieve the eye; and, indeed, it is hard to say at the first view which is the native rock and which are the artificial buildings, for the former is flat-topped and the latter are flat-roofed. But on closer inspection, it will be seen that an immense deal of labour has been expended on the architectural decorations of most of the houses, the fronts of which are ornamented with richly carved balconies and lattices. One of the finest buildings is the house of the notorious *Dīvān*, Sālīm Singh, who devastated the country about a hundred years ago with his extortions and cruelty; it is six storeys in height, and contains much ornamentation, especially on the top storey.

The town possesses a post office, a jail which has accommodation for eighty-eight prisoners, a small lunatic asylum, a couple of schools in one of which English is taught, and a hospital with beds for six in-patients.

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STATISTICAL TABLES.

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wild tract in the south-east of
was roughly estimated at

TABLE No. I.

The Western Rājputāna States Residency.

STATE.	Area in square miles.	POPULATION IN—			Normal <i>khālsa</i> revenue in thousands of Imperial rupees.
		1881.	1891.	1901.	
Jaisalmer ...	16,062	108,143	115,701	73,370	1,00
Jodhpur ...	34,963	1,757,618	2,528,178	1,935,565	56,00
Sirohi ...	1,964	142,903	190,836	154,544	3,50
Total ...	52,989	2,008,664	2,834,715	2,163,479	60,50

NOTE.—In 1881 the Girāsias of the Bhākar, a wild tract in the south-east of Sirohi, were omitted altogether; in 1891 their number was roughly estimated at 2,860, and this has been included above.

TABLE No. II.

List of Political Agents (i) of Jodhpur; (ii) of Jodhpur and Jaisalmer; and (iii) of the Western Rājputāna States; also list of Residents, Western Rājputāna States.

Names.	Period.	REMARKS.
Captain J. Ludlow ...	1839-44	
Captain P. S. French ...	1844-45	
Captain H. H. Greathed	1845-48	
Captain D. A. Malcolm	1848-51	
Lieutenant-Colonel Sir R. Shakespeare.	1851-57	
Captain G. H. Monck Mason.	1857	(Officiating).
Major R. Morrison ...	1857-58	(Ditto).
Lieutenant-Colonel W. Anderson.	1858	
Captain J. C. Brooke ...	1858-59	(Ditto).
Captain J. P. Nixon ...	1859-65	
Captain E. C. Impey ...	1865-68	
Lieutenant-Colonel J. C. Brooke.	1868-70	The first Political Agent of Jodhpur and Jaisalmer, the charge of the latter State having been made over to him in 1869.
Major E. C. Impey ...	1870-73	
Major C. K. M. Walter	1873-77	
Major T. Cadell ...	1877-78	
Captain D. W. K. Barr	1878-79	

List of Political Agents (continued).

Name.	Period.	REMARKS.
Major T. Cadell ...	1879	The political charge of Jodhpur, Jaisalmer and Sirohi was amalgamated with the command of the Erinpura Irregular Force in 1879, and was styled the Western Rājputāna States Agency in 1880. The command of the E. I. F. was separated from the duties of the Political Agent in 1881, and in the following year the headquarters were moved from Erinpura to Jodhpur and the designation "Western Rājputāna States Residency" came into use.
Captain A. R. T. McRae	1879-80	
Major P. W. Powlett...	1880	
Lieutenant-Colonel W. Tweedie.	1880-81	
Lieutenant-Colonel P. W. Powlett.	1881-84	
Major C. A. Baylay ...	1884	(Officiating).
Lieutenant-Colonel P. W. Powlett.	1884-86	
Lieutenant-Colonel H. P. Peacock.	1886	(Ditto).
Colonel P. W. Powlett...	1886-89	
Major W. Loch ...	1889	(Ditto).
Colonel P. W. Powlett...	1889-92	

List of Residents, Western Rājputāna States (continued).

Name.	Period.	REMARKS.
Lieutenant-Colonel H. B. Abbott.	1892-93	
Lieutenant-Colonel W. H. C. Wyllie.	1893	(Officiating).
Lieutenant-Colonel H. B. Abbott.	1893-95	
Lieutenant-Colonel J. H. Newill.	1895	(Ditto).
Mr. A. H. T. Martindale	1895	(Ditto).
Lieutenant-Colonel H. B. Abbott.	1895-97	
Mr. A. H. T. Martindale	1897-98	
Lieutenant-Colonel C. E. Yate.	1898	(Ditto).
Lieutenant-Colonel W. H. C. Wyllie.	1898-99	
Lieutenant-Colonel C. E. Yate.	1899	(Ditto).
Lieutenant-Colonel W. H. C. Wyllie	1899-1900	
Lieutenant-Colonel A. P. Thornton.	1900-01	
Captain K. D. Erskine...	1901-02	
Lieutenant-Colonel A. P. Thornton.	1902	
Major K. D. Erskine ...	1902-03	
Lieutenant-Colonel R. H. Jennings.	1903-05	

List of Residents, Western Rājputāna States (concluded).

Name.	Period.	REMARKS.
Major W. R. Stratton...	1905-08	
Mr. H. V. Cobb ...	1908	

NOTE I.—The names of officers who merely held temporary charge of the current duties for short periods have been omitted.

NOTE II.—Jaisalmer was directly under the political charge of the Governor General's Agent from 1832 to 1869.

NOTE III.—Sirohi was, as a rule, under the political charge of an Assistant to the Governor General's Agent up to 1870, when it was placed under the Commandant of the Erinpura Irregular Force; this arrangement continued till 1881.

TABLE No. III.

Rainfall--Jaisalmer town.

(in inches).

YEAR.	June.	July.	August.	September.	Remaining eight months.	Total for. the year.
Average of twenty- three years ending 1905 ...	0.73	2.04	1.82	0.65	0.94	6.18
1896 ...	0.64	1.85	1.11	...	0.03	3.63
1897 ...	0.18	2.11	5.28	2.49	1.07	11.13
1898 ...	1.65	0.79	...	0.30	1.13	3.87
1899	0.26	0.26
1900	0.57	2.05	1.70	0.68	5.00
1901 ...	0.02	3.14	0.39	...	0.11	3.66
1902 ...	2.49	0.21	0.81	1.16	0.53	5.20
1903	2.30	1.19	0.30	0.40	4.19
1904 ...	0.21	...	0.05	...	1.87	2.13
1905	0.06	...	2.68	0.89	3.63
1906 ...	0.16	1.08	4.76	4.16	2.35	12.51
1907 ...	0.32	2.15	5.23	...	1.80	9.50
1908 ...						
1909 ...						
1910 ...						
1911 ...						

TABLE No. IV.

Rainfall in the districts of the Jaisalmer State.

(in inches).

YEAR.	NAME OF RAIN-GAUGE STATION.				
	Bāp.	Devikot.	Dewa.	Khābha.	Rāmgarh.
1895 ...	6.30	2.66	1.64	3.78	3.85
1896 ...	4.86	6.56	1.13	2.99	0.90
1897 ...	11.00	7.19	11.25	10.77	6.48
1898 ...	7.08	8.33	2.44	4.49	1.52
1899 ...	1.57	0.70	1.39
1900 ...	7.70	8.82	5.75	3.59	3.87
1901 ...	4.74	4.13	2.13	4.80	2.75
1902 ...	4.72	4.74	4.92	10.76	4.89
1903 ...	7.04	6.53	2.73	7.07	7.74
1904 ...	4.50	2.55	1.44	0.34	1.50
1905 ...	0.96	1.90	4.14	3.37	2.34
* Annual average for above eleven years.	5.49	4.91	3.54	4.72	3.25
1906 ...	10.42	9.05	10.45	7.32	8.64
1907 ...	5.34	6.06	4.15	3.40	5.74
1908 ...					
1909 ...					
1910 ...					
1911 ...					

* The average for Jaisalmer town for the same period was 4.16 inches.

TABLE No. V.

List of chiefs of Jaisalmer.

No.	Name.	REMARKS.
1	Mangal Rao ...	Driven from the Punjab and settled in the Indian desert in the eighth century.
2	Majam Rao ...	
3	Kehar I ...	Founded Tanot, the first desert-capital of the Bhātis.
4	Tano or Tanuji ...	
5	Bijai Rāj I ...	
6	Deorāj ...	The first to assume the title of Rāwal; captured Lodorva from the Lodra Rājputs and made it his capital.
7	Mūnda ...	Is supposed to have married the daughter of Vallabharājā Solanki of Anhilwāra Pātan; the latter died in 1009.
8	Wachuji or Bachera	
9	Dusaj ...	
10	Bijai Rāj II ...	Married the daughter of Siddharājā Jai Singh Solanki, who is known to have ruled at Anhilwāra Pātan from 1093 to 1143.
11	Bhojdeo ...	Founded the town of Jaisalmer about 1156 and made it his capital; is said to have died about 1168.
12	Jaisal ...	
13	Sālivāhan I ...	
14	Bijal ...	Elder brother of Sālivāhan I.
15	Kailan ...	
16	Chāchikdeo I ...	
17	Karan Singh I ...	

List of chiefs of Jaisalmer (continued).

No.	Name.	REMARKS.
18	Lākhan ...	A simpleton, allowed to rule for four years only.
19	Pūnpāl ...	
20	Jet Singh I ...	Said to have ruled from 1276 to 1294 and to have defended his capital for eight years against some Muhammadan army.
21	Mulrāj I ...	Son of Jet Singh; ruled for about a year and was killed when the above army took Jaisalmer (1295).
22	Dūda ...	Another son of Jet Singh; he recovered the capital but lost it again to Alā-ud-dīn's army in 1306, and was killed in that battle.
23	Gharsi ...	A nephew of Mulrāj; he had been captured at the first siege and taken to Delhi, where he gained the king's favour; was permitted to return to Jaisalmer and re-established the State; was assassinated about 1335.
24	Kehar II ...	A grandson of Mulrāj; he is said to have ruled from 1335 to 1395.
25	Lachhman ...	A son of Kehar; inscriptions at Jaisalmer mention him as ruling in 1402 and 1416.
26	Bersi ...	A son of Lachhman; he is mentioned in inscriptions at Jaisalmer as the ruler in 1436 and 1440.
27	Chāchikdeo II ...	Mentioned in an inscription in a temple at Jaisalmer dated 1448 as ruling in that year.
28	Devī Dās (or Devī Karan).	Mentioned in an inscription at Jaisalmer as ruling in 1479.

List of chiefs of Jaisalmer (continued).

No.	Name.	REMARKS.
29	Jet Singh II ...	Mentioned in an inscription at Jaisalmer as occupying the <i>gaddi</i> in 1524 and 1526.
30	Karan Singh II ...	
31	Lūnkaran ...	Mentioned in the <i>Tabakāt-i-akbarī</i> as having opposed Humāyūn in his march across the desert in 1541.
32	Māldeo ...	A son of Lūnkaran; said to have been alive in 1555.
33	Har Rāj ...	Mentioned in the <i>Beg-lār-nāmah</i> as receiving a deputation from Sind headed by Khān-i-Zamān.
34	Bhīm ...	A son of Har Rāj, mentioned in an inscription at Jaisalmer as the ruler in 1616. He was a <i>mansabdār</i> of 500 according to the <i>Ain-i-Akbarī</i> and the father-in-law of Jahāngīr according to the emperor himself (<i>Tuzak-i-Jahāngīrī</i>); died in 1624.
35	Kalyān Dās ...	Was appointed governor of Orissa in 1610 according to the <i>Ain-i-Akbarī</i> . Jahāngīr writes that he made him a commander of 2,000 in 1616, and called him to court and invested him as Rāwal in 1626.
36	Manohar Dās ...	
37	Rāmchandra ...	
38	Sabal Singh ...	Was not the legitimate heir to the <i>gaddi</i> , but received Jaisalmer from Shāh Jahān as a reward for services rendered at Peshāwar; ruled from 1651 to 1661.
39	Amar Singh ...	Ruled from 1661 to 1702.
40	Jaswant Singh ..	Dispossessed of some of his lands by the Rāthors and by Dāud Khān.

List of chiefs of Jaisalmer (concluded).

No.	Name.	REMARKS.
41	Budh Singh ...	
42	Tej Singh ...	
43	Akhai Singh ...	Ruled from 1722 to 1762; established a mint at his capital in 1756; lost more land to Bahāwal Khān, son of Dāud Khān and founder of Bahāwalpur.
44	Mulrāj II ...	Ruled from 1762 to 1820; a puppet in the hands of his minister, the infamous Sālim Singh; concluded treaty with the British in December 1818.
45	Gaj Singh ...	The grandson of Mulrāj, ruled from 1820 to 1846 and assisted Government with camels in the first Afghān war.
46	Ranjīt Singh ...	Nephew of Gaj Singh, whom he succeeded by adoption; died June 1864.
47	Bairi Sāl ...	Younger brother of Ranjīt Singh, whom he succeeded by adoption; installed October 1865 and died March 1891.
48	Sālivāhan II ...	Adopted by the widows of Bairi Sāl; was born in June 1887, educated at the Mayo College, and is the present Mahārāwal.

Since this table was compiled I have received Mr. Bhandarkar's *Report of a second tour in search of Sanskrit manuscripts made in Rājputāna and Central India in 1904-05 and 1905-06* (Bombay, 1907). According to inscriptions found by him in certain temples at Jaisalmer, Mulrāj I (No. 21) was succeeded by his brother, Ratan Singh, and they together "righteously protected the earth as did Lakshman and Rāma of old." Mulrāj had a son called Deorāj, the father of Kehar II (No. 24); one inscription mentions him as the chief of the State just after Gharsi (or Ghata Singh), but the popular idea is that he died of fever during the siege of Jaisalmer at the end of the thirteenth century.

TABLE No. VI.

Population, Jaisalmer State, 1881, 1891, and 1901.

DETAILS.	1881.	1891.	1901.	REMARKS.
Number of towns ...	1	1	1	In 1881 there were 20,955 persons who did not return their religion; it is probable that about 4,000 were Animists and the rest mostly Hindus. In 1891 the 3,936 Bhils were classed as Hindus, but they are shown in this table as Animists because the tribe was considered as such at the census of 1901.
„ „ villages...	413	396	471	
Total population ...	108,143	115,701	73,370	
Number of males ...	61,127	62,699	39,389	
„ „ females...	47,016	53,002	33,981	
„ „ Hindus...	57,484	80,804	51,990	
„ „ Musalmāns	28,032	29,443	18,648	
„ „ Animists,	...	3,936	1,551	
„ „ Jains ...	1,671	1,518	1,178	
Urban population ...	10,965	10,509	7,137	
Population per square mile.	6·73	7·20	4·57	

Percentage of variation in population—

(i) between 1881 and 1891 +6·99
(ii) „ 1881 „ 1901 —32·15
(iii) „ 1891 „ 1901 —36·59

TABLE No. VII.

Jaisalmer State in 1901 by districts or hukūmats.

Name of <i>hukūmat</i> .	Approximate area in square miles.	NUMBER OF		Total population.	Density per square mile (approximate).	Percentage of variation in population between 1891 and 1901.
		Towns.	Villages.			
Bāp ...	700	...	24	7,791	11.13	—44.8
Bārāwa-Buili ...	700	...	9	1,124	1.60	—15.2
Devikot ...	800	...	38	4,725	5.90	—53.1
Dewa ...	1,200	...	27	3,063	2.55	—5.4
Fatehgarh ...	700	...	37	5,679	8.11	—25.2
Jaisalmer ...	1,200	1	57	12,790	10.66	—31.7
Khāra-Khuiāla ...	1,000	...	16	3,787	3.78	—18.9
Kishangarh ...	400	...	1	403	1.01	—30.3
Lākha ...	262	...	17	3,951	15.08	—30.1
Mayājlar ...	800	...	10	2,226	2.78	—31.8
Mohangarh-Nāchna	2,200	...	19	5,021	2.28	—25.2
Nokh ...	2,100	...	72	11,803	5.62	—51.4
Rāmgarh ...	400	...	10	2,112	5.28	—32.1
Sām-Khābha ...	1,700	...	33	4,650	2.73	—30.9
Shāhgarh-Ghotāru	1,600	...	100	3,734	2.33	—20.1
Tanot ...	300	...	1	511	1.70	—45.1
Total for State ...	16,062	1	471	73,370	4.57	—36.59

TABLE No. VIII.

Average retail prices (in seers per rupee) of certain food grains, pulses and salt in Jaisalmer since 1884.

PERIOD.			Wheat.	Gram.	Bājra.	Jowār.	Salt.
1884—90	11·5	13·8	15·3	17·1	22·71
1891—1900	(excluding years of famine).		10·2	12·1	13·4	14·9	21·0
1901	9·5	9·5	13·6	14·7	21·0
1902	11·1	11·9	13·3	14·2	21·0
1903	11·1	12·9	15·2	16·5	21·0
1904	11·8	13·5	15·9	17·5	21·0
1905	9·3	10·8	12·1	13·1	21·0
1906	9·5	10·3	11·3	12·6	21·0
1907	11·0	11·0	12·11	14·10	21·0
1908					
1909					
1910					
1911					

The figures (up to and including the year 1906) have been taken from the latest issue of *Prices and Wages in India*; those for 1907 have been obtained locally.

TABLE No. IX.

List of leading nobles of the Jaisalmer State.

Name of estate.	Title of holder.	Clan and sept of holder.	Approximate annual income	REMARKS.
			Rs. (British.)	
Bikampur ...	Rao ...	Bhāti (Barsang)	3,850	All these receive the double <i>tāzīm</i> , i.e. the Mahārāwal rises both on their arrival and departure.
Birsilpur ...	Do. ...	Do (Khiān)...	6,150	
Bāru ...	Thākur.	Do. (Dwārka-dāsot)	1,300	
Gehun or Baiya	Do. ...	Do. (U d a i Singhot).	540	
Girājsar ...	Do. ..	Do. (Barsang)	1,300	
Jhinjiniāli ...	Do. ...	Do. (U d a i Singhot)	960	
Khuri ...	Do. ...	Ponwār (Sodha)	1,150	
Nawatāla ...	Do. ...	Bhāti (Prithwī-rājot)	770	
Rindha ...	Do. ...	Do. (Tejmalot)	770	He is the <i>pradhān</i> or hereditary office-bearer, entitled to a seat behind the chief on an elephant on State occasions.
Satyāya ...	Do. ...	Do. (S a k a t Singhot)	385	
Chelak ...	Do. ...	Do. (Prithwī-rājot)	230	

Among the Rājwīs or near relatives of the chief may be mentioned Thākurs Mān Singh of Eta and Sheodān Singh, both members of Council; Thākur Sultān Singh of Nāchna; and Thākur Dān Singh of Lāthi (the Mahārāwal's brother).

TABLE No. X.

Jaisalmer Jail.

YEAR.	JAIL POPU- LATION.		Daily average number of sick.	Number of deaths.	Rate of morta- lity per 1,000.	REMARKS.		
	Daily average.	Maxi- mum on any one day.						
1894	...	46	66	7	...	The jail through- out this period (1894--1907) had accommoda- tion for 88 pri- soners.		
1895	...	33	48	6	...			
1896	...	46	61	8	3		65	
1897	...	41	57	3	
1898	...	45	60	2	1		22	
1899	...	51	88	3	5	88	Cost of mainten- ance a b o u t Rs. 1,600.	
1900	...	42	76	3	12	283		
1901	...	53	89	4	1	19		
1902	...	73	95	5	6	83		Do. about Rs. 2,500.
1903	...	52	64	3	4	77		Do. Rs. 1,200.
1904	...	54	70	4	1	18	Do. Rs. 1,200.	
1905	...	46	60	3	2	43	Do. Rs. 1,400.	
1906	...	33	58	2	2	61	Do. Rs. 1,100.	
1907	...	27	42	1	1	36		
1908	...							
1909	...							
1910	...							
1911	...							



TABLE No. XI.

Schools in the Jaisalmer State, 1905-06.

Locality.	Class.	Number on rolls.	Daily average attendance.	REMARKS.
Jaisalmer ...	Anglo-vernacular primary.	94	59·2	Cost about Rs. 1,100 (British).
Do. ...	Vernacular primary.	60	30·3	Cost about Rs. 100 (British).
Bāp ...	Do. ...	26	17·3	Cost about Rs. 80 (British).
Three State schools ...		180	106·8	Cost about Rs. 1,280 (British).

The Administration Report for 1906-07 has since been received. The same three schools were maintained, but the number of pupils on the rolls fell to 156 and the daily average attendance was only 87. The expenditure was about Rs. 1,000.

There are several institutions of the indigenous type maintained by private individuals and communities, but no returns are available.

TABLE No. XII.

Jaisalmer Hospital.

YEAR.	NUMBER OF PATIENTS TREATED.			DAILY AVERAGE NUMBER OF		Number of operations performed.	REMARKS.
	In-door.	Out-door.	Total.	In-patients.	Out-patients.		
1892	...	3,857	3,857	...	60	199	Opened as a dispensary on the 15th April 1892.
1893	...	4,897	4,897	...	47	198	
1894	...	4,117	4,117	...	45	175	
1895	31	4,427	4,458	3	46	216	Accommodation provided for four male in-patients.
1896	33	4,449	4,482	4	48	255	Beds for two female in-patients added.
1897	33	4,618	4,651	3	51	256	
1898	51	4,046	4,097	4	47	268	
1899	62	5,058	5,120	4	69	318	
1900	40	9,157	9,197	3	101	312	
1901	24	4,230	4,254	3	70	250	
1902	26	4,803	4,829	3	74	302	
1903	30	4,182	4,212	2	66	257	
1904	43	3,981	4,024	3	64	306	
1905	31	4,086	4,117	3	66	248	
1906	27	8,760	8,787	3	132	242	
1907	30	7,010	7,040	3	87	287	
1908							
1909							
1910							
1911							

TABLE No XIII.

Vaccination in the Jaisalmer State.

YEAR.	NUMBER OF			Ratio of persons successfully vaccinated per 1,000 of population.	REMARKS.
	Vaccinators employed.	Vaccinations performed.	Successful vaccinations performed.		
					Rs.
1890-91 ...	2	175	150	1.39	Expenditure 56
1891-92 ...	2	248	154	1.33	„ 96
1892-93 ...	2	654	583	5.04	„ 165
1893-94 ...	4	1,822	1,721	14.87	„ 228
1894-95 ...	4	3,218	3,124	27.00	„ 227
1895-96 ...	4	2,420	2,388	20.64	„ 251
1896-97 ...	4	1,199	1,188	10.27	„ 256
1897-98 ...	4	1,757	1,721	14.87	„ 282
1898-99 ...	5	2,334	2,297	19.85	„ 459
1899-1900...	5	2,432	2,365	20.44	„ 656
1900-01 ...	5	2,188	2,105	18.19	„ 607
1901-02 ...	4	1,619	1,517	20.68	„ 562
1902-03 ...	5	1,702	1,663	22.67	„ 619
1903-04 ...	5	1,143	1,101	15.01	„ 599
1904-05 ...	5	1,112	1,104	15.05	„ 610
1905-06 ...	3	844	818	11.15	„ 511
1906-07 ...	2	996	965	13.15	„ 480
1907-08					
1908-09					
1909-10					
1910-11					



